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THE RELATION OF ATHLETICS TO PHYSICAL EDUCATION*

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The title suggests a topic so broad in implication that it will be necessary to delimit the area for the purpose of this discussion. Athletics are presumed to mean that type of activity participated in by high school and collegiate teams following periods of highly specialized training and conditioning. This would eliminate the type of sports program usually carried on in the elementary schools, as well as intramural and informal activities on other levels of education.

Another problem that needs some clarification is the specific instance in which relations do exist between athletics and physical education. This problem might be approached from the standpoint, first, of administrative control; second, of the objectives and contributions of each; and, finally, of the value of athletics as compared with physical education in respect to the educational outcome, especially on the emotional side.

From an administrative standpoint, the athletic program of the high school appears to be comprehended within one department or division. A definite trend and precedent seem to be established at present whereby physical education and athletics in secondary education are combined administratively. While this unity of administration has a beneficial effect on both physical education and athletics, it is apparent that many factors are creeping into secondary-school athletics that, if not curbed, will focus upon the secondary-school athletic program many of the criticisms now directed toward collegiate athletics. The average principal or superintendent looks on his hygiene and physical education program as including hygiene instruction, health service, and physical education (including athletics). Further, he views it as a coordinated program, expecting each individual unit to contribute its portion to the whole, thus simplifying the administrative problem of the superintendent and principal and at the same time offering a splendid chance for a unified, coordinated, integrated program dealing with the physical, mental, and social health of the youth.

Considering athletics and physical education at the secondary level, the objectives and outcomes of the two programs are more nearly similar than they are at the collegiate level. This is due partly to the control and partly to the general program at the secondary level. Ordinarily there is much less emphasis on athletics, which are often an outgrowth of the physical-education program. Safeguards relative to the number of sports participated in, length of schedule, post-season games, and limitation of travel all receive considerable attention at the secondary level. Probably a larger proportion of students receive the benefits of interschool athletics in high school than in college. At the secondary level it is easier to attain realization of the ideal of a well-rounded program of hygiene and physical education since athletic sports here may constitute one phase of a balanced program of physical education.

At the college level quite a different situation confronts us. Historically, the control of intercollegiate athletics is often separate and distinct from the physical-education program. Not only is the administrative control separate, but the aims and objectives often are widely divergent. This condition is not wholly a product of the present time, but the history back of the present situation indicates why it could not have been otherwise. A study of the history of intercollegiate athletics will show them passing through the stages of physical education and intramural competition, informal sports program, and later followed by informal matches between institutions located nearby—both of these sports programs, however, frowned upon by the faculty of the institution. Gradually came student control of intercollegiate athletics, followed first by successive steps that included alumni support and subsidies, carrying with it special control, the hiring of coaches, the addition of trainers and more skillfully trained players and better-played ball games; followed next by better medical supervision of athletes; and, finally, by the erection of stadia and field houses with the "big business" idea predominating.

The immense growth and popularity of intercollegiate athletics has swept this type of program further and further away from the old anchorage of physical education, if not from the very shores of the institution itself. On many campuses this extraordinary growth and development has been accompanied by bitter quarrels and controversies relative to the control of athletics. The faculty and administration of certain institutions have been trying to wrest control from the alumni and students. This has all come about because of big-

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business conditions that dominate the situation; namely, large football stadia, enormous gate receipts, post-season games, athletic scholarships, subsidized athletes, lax scholastic requirements for star performers, long practice sessions, athletic schedules that take athletes away from their school work, high coaching salaries and over-zealous coaches, and the dependence of coaches' tenure upon the production of winning teams. All of this is so evident in present-day education that it is bound to figure in any discussion relative to participation in intercollegiate athletics. Recently considerable controversy has arisen as to whether or not intercollegiate athletics can continue on a semi-professional basis. The consensus seems to be that athletics must be either amateur or professional. There is discussion relative to dividing institutions into two classes—those that subsidize athletes and those that select their teams from the student body without athletic subsidy or encouragement by alumni to attend their alma mater. The first group permits aid to athletes either from institutional or athletic department funds, and does not object to aid being furnished by alumni or others. The latter group looks upon athletics as a mere adjunct to the educational program of the institution. Its teams are composed of men with a real desire for a college education; whereas the teams of the first group must be regarded as being composed of hired performers.

Criticism of athletics is directed largely toward major sports, primarily football; so, in the main, a discussion of athletics should not be dominated or influenced by the conduct of these sports. If this be true, there is little difference between the two programs except intensity and carry-over, or recreational value.

All of the foregoing does not mean that athletics and physical education basically and fundamentally cannot and do not have the same objectives and outcomes, but it does mean that the program as administered in many institutions of higher learning at present makes the objectives and outcomes of the two activities vastly different. The administration of the athletic program has tended to segregate the coaching staff from the physical education staff. Oftentimes contacts, cooperation, and association are made extremely difficult between the staffs of these two departments.

Both physical education and athletics comprise an important part of education. It is inconceivable that the athletic program often is so organized that it does not become a part of the educational program. Thus a tremendous responsibility falls on administrators to educate men intellectually, morally, and socially—a responsibility that applies as immediately in the areas of physical well-being and physical courage as in any other realm of human development. This places directly upon administrators the task of preserving for the young men the fine values which athletics have held, or—to risk a little more optimism—still hold, in American life.

The above may appear to be a gloomy picture. It should not be so interpreted, however, because careful analysis will show much that is encouraging.

In several institutions of higher education throughout the country there appears a definite trend to organize the hygiene and physical education activities of the colleges on somewhat the same basis as has been done in the secondary program. Thus several institutions have already established organizations that coordinate, unify, and interrelate health service, hygiene instruction, intramural sports, intercollegiate athletics, physical education, etc., under the direction of one administrative authority. Perhaps fifteen or twenty institutions in the country, some of them large, well established, and influential, have taken this step. Whether or not this constitutes a trend is difficult to say at present. It is quite in keeping, however, with recent trends in higher education. The consolidation, unification, and reduction of departments; consolidation of entire institutions; regionalization in higher education; horizontal divisioning—all are trends toward unification and simplification in the administration of collegiate activities in other areas than athletics and physical education.

The unification and correlation mentioned relative to the health program is quite in keeping with the definite trend in the other areas as indicated above. If the relations between athletics and physical education at the present time are not what they should be, either in high school or in college (and, as indicated, they are far more in accord in high school than in college), this lack of coordination may be justly laid to administrative practice rather than to any inherent divergence in either the athletic or physical education program.

The aims and objectives of both programs should be analyzed and considered, with a view to determining how divergent these aims and objectives actually are. In this respect basic fundamental aims should be examined with regard to the ideal outcomes as contrasted to those distorted aims and objectives that faulty administrative organization has produced.

It is unnecessary to mention the objectives of either physical education or athletics; they are too well known to this group. The objectives and outcomes of physical education differ somewhat between the high school and the collegiate levels, largely due to perspective and emphasis. Fundamentally, however, I am not sure that there is so great a divergence in the aims and objectives of the athletic programs of these two levels as is often thought.

The fundamental aims and objectives of the athletic and physical education programs should be, and are, more or less identical. The two programs

differ widely in the way the outcomes are produced, the goals of athletics being reached by a different procedure from that in the physical education program. If both are conducted sanely with a generous amount of common sense they should achieve the same objectives. Even from a casual survey, however, it is apparent that this is not now the case.

As indicated previously, the administration and history of the two programs in higher education have allowed them to become widely separated both as to conduct and as to outcome. Obviously the clientele served by the athletic program varies quite distinctly from that of the physical education program. The athletic program attracts the best physical specimens in the institution; hence the physiological outcome from the athletic program might not be considered as important or valuable as the contribution which physical education might make to those not so well equipped. The numbers handled by the athletic program are smaller than in physical education, thus limiting their effectiveness. Whether the social, moral, health, and character values are any more inherent in the athletic program than the physical-education program is debatable.

It may be worth while to indicate how organization may enhance certain relations between these two groups to the benefit of both departments. As indicated, basically the aims and objectives are the same but are reached by different methods and through different programs. In most collegiate institutions, as in high schools, it is impossible to furnish two staffs or two sets of facilities and equipment. This makes necessary the pooling of resources for the benefit of both departments. It is possible to apportion the time of the staff between both departments and still retain a proper balance between the activities. This is also true with respect to class facilities and equipment. An organization that permits this will bring support to both the physical-education and the athletic programs. While this is perhaps more difficult of attainment in higher education in some sections of the country and in some institutions, yet there is evidence that well-organized, coordinated programs have been worked out at several institutions. The college administrator is showing a definite tendency to look upon these activities as a part of a general health program (including somatic, mental, and social health), each contributing only a part to the general student-welfare program. To insure that the contribution these two activities are best able to make be obtained for the institution, an administrative organization is recommended that includes these two departments and other allied interests, an organization that has already been established in some institutions and is now being considered at others throughout the country.

Controversy and discussion have focused attention in an unfavorable way on both athletics and physical education, even to the extent that they are considered to be unrelated, opposed to each other, and actively antagonistic. This is far from true, and they should not be viewed in this light. The two activities must be considered as cooperative, functional departments, each concerned with the work of the other, having the same objectives, and each interested in guaranteeing that its contribution supplements the other and insures to every student the benefits that it is best suited to give.

RECREATIONAL SPORTS PROGRAMS IN CALIFORNIA UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES

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Institutions of higher education are gradually coming to recognize their increasing responsibility for the recreation of their students. For several decades now educators have realized and emphasized the importance of "worthy use of leisure time." Nicholas Murray Butler even went so far as to say that "guidance in the right use of leisure is vastly more important than what is known as vocational guidance." Despite the general recognation of the importance of preparation for leisure most of the emphasis has been placed upon *future* leisure. Colleges and universities have been very indifferent to the leisure time activities of their students so long as they did not indulge in harmful amusements. Yet we know that college students can and very often do engage in unwholesome and wasteful forms of recreation just as anyone else does. It is not enough to prepare for the leisure twenty-five years hence. Most of us have accepted John Dewey's philosophy that the school is life and not preparation for life. With the acceptance of such a philosophy we are, then, just as much concerned with *present* as future leisure.

In most of the colleges and universities the department of physical education is expected to assume the chief responsibility for the recreation of the students. To a certain extent physical educators have met this responsibility through their intercollegiate and intramural programs. But is this enough? How far should the department of physical education go in providing for the recreation of the student body? We know that many students do not engage in intramural and intercollegiate sports for recreation. We know that these programs do not completely satisfy the needs for recreation for the entire student body. What else is being done to meet this need? In order to find the situation in the colleges and universities in California this study was undertaken.

Questionnaires were sent out and returns were received from the four major universities, seven state colleges and twenty-five of the larger junior colleges. In certain cases the returns were supplemented by interviews with students who had just been in attendance at one of the other colleges.

The results of this survey show that all of the departments of physical education have concerned themselves with student recreation. As we might expect there is a wide range of programs offered. In some of the colleges and universities aggressive leadership has resulted in efficient, comprehensive recreation programs that reach the majority of the students throughout the school year. These schools are in the minority. In most of the colleges little more is done than to provide facilities and equipment for recreation. Wherevere the departmental facilities are not being utilized by the curricular, intercollegiate or intramural activities then the students may use them. We are all familiar with the practice of providing tennis, volleyball and badminton nets and issuing from the equipment room basketballs, footballs and other equipments.

This type of recreational provision is typical, being found in eighty-three per cent or thirty schools. It is unfortunate that this *laissez-faire* type of recreational program is found in so many schools. Such programs do not reach those who have the greatest need for recreation. Very frequently they reach only a small percentage of students. It is undoubtedly true that some institutions are handicapped by inadequate facilities. But active leadership can do much to overcome such handicaps. The programs in these schools need to be organized and the students need encouragement and guidance to enter into them.

The better programs are apparently due to a more vigorous aggressive leadership. There is usually a member of the physical education staff in charge of recreation—in fact he might be called the Director of Recreation. In addition to making available the facilities and equipment this director may organize hikes, sports clubs, all-school play nights, co-educational recreation, picnics, outing events, dances, pageants, noon hour recreation, carnivals, play days and other like activities. He arranges schedules, he conducts tournaments and he obtains publicity. He coordinates all the recreational facilities which the school may offer for student and faculty recreation. He enlists the cooperation of the music, dramatic, fine arts and other departments in putting on a comprehensive program which is designed to reach all or at least the majority of the students. He has a plan of guidance for those students who are seeking or are unacquainted with worthwhile uses of leisure.

Only six or approximately twenty per cent of the California colleges and universities have a comprehensive program with an administrative set-up

as just pictured. It is unquestionably true that the heavy teaching load and the demands made by the various intercollegiate sports make it difficult, if not impossible, for many of the physical education staffs to carry out such a broad recreational program. Thirty-five per cent of these institutions had a faculty member who was responsible for organizing student recreation. In sixty per cent there was some plan of guidance given to students who were unacquainted with worthwhile uses of leisure.

Coeducational recreation is very popular in the California colleges and universities. Only two of the departments did not sponsor some sort of recreation for both sexes together. These events were usually in the form of all-college play nights, dances, or noon-hour play activities. Two schools conducted mixed paddle tennis, badminton and table tennis tournaments. About sixty per cent of the schools had one or more play nights each semester. However, one college had such an event every two weeks throughout the school year. Because of its size the University of Southern California could not have an all-university night but substituted in its stead periodic nights for different colleges, departments and schools. A number of the southern institutions have joint recreational nights. The University of California at Los Angeles holds such recreationals with the University of Southern California, Pomona, Occidental, and others, and they are participated in by about four hundred people.

These play nights are of different kinds. In some the entire evening is devoted to mixed participation in badminton, paddle tennis, deck tennis, table tennis, volleyball, shuffleboard and similar activities. In others the first half of the program is devoted to the above sports and the last half to various types of dancing. About half of the physical education departments sponsor dances—some as often as one every week. These dances are usually free or require a small admission.

Six of the colleges provide noon-hour recreation programs. At times the entire period is devoted to social dancing but more frequently the hour is spent in coeducational sports activities. In two of the schools dancing instruction for beginners was provided during the noon hour. In one institution the noon hour was given over to coeducational recreation with regularly scheduled activities under supervision.

Sports clubs were quite popular, there being at least one or two in every institution. These were usually organized and conducted by the students themselves although most of them have faculty advisors. The most popular of these student organizations is the Ski Club which was found in eleven institutions. Almost as popular were hiking and badminton clubs. Other clubs found were rifle, swimming, tennis, horseback riding, golf, hockey, gymnastics, fencing, wrestling and fishing and hunting.

These sports clubs provide excellent recreation for their members. For example, the Ski Club at Stanford has more than three hundred members. Membership is open to any student who is interested in skiing. The dues are but $1.00 per year. Every Friday afternoon or Saturday morning during the winter quarter from fifty to one hundred and fifty members of the Club go to Yosemite for a weekend of skiing (210 miles). Usually five or six students go in one car and share expenses. Rooms in the men's and women's dormitories may be obtained for $1.00 to $1.25 per night. Members of the Ski Club are entitled to special rates. Skis may be rented at Yosemite. The entire day is spent in skiing and the evenings are devoted to ice skating or sitting about the fire in the lodge. During the week on the campus the beginning members of the club practice on a strawstack by the men's gymnasium.

Several of the junior colleges in southern California have a play day for the men students. It is called a "Non-letterman's Athletic Carnival." It is open to any student in a school who has not earned a letter in any form of collegiate competition. The events include tennis, badminton, indoor baseball, volleyball, handball, swimming, basketball, table tennis and several track events. It is held for the purpose of establishing a social contact between a larger number of college men and to stimulate interest in physical education activities. The teams are organized by the varsity lettermen and physical education majors.

Four of the schools indicated that outing events were held for the student body. These events usually took the form of picnics, hikes or swimming parties. Santa Barbara State college has an outing cabin provided for such events. In two of the colleges a Student Recreation Commission took an active part in arranging for various recreative activities.

An attempt was made to discover what sports college men engaged in for recreation. It was felt that such information would be of value because it would indicate what sports college men preferred and it would also show what activities were being provided by the different institutions. The results indicated that basketball was the most popular recreative activity for college men. We all know that boys like to come to the gymnasium in their spare time and check out a basketball to shoot baskets and get up an informal game with two, three or more on a side. In addition to basketball there was extensive participation in social dancing, tennis, swimming, baseball and football. The participation in football and baseball included for the most part merely practice on the various fundamentals or playing modifications of the regular games such as touch football or softball.

Close behind the above sports in popularity were badminton, golf, handball, boxing, wrestling and

volleyball. The activities engaged in least for recreation were soccer, rugby, tumbling, apparatus, horseshoes, hiking, fencing, rowing, skiing, horseback riding, weight lifting and roller skating.

Because it was felt that the amount of recreation in the different activities was influenced by the facilities which were available an attempt was made to discover what facilities were available for these different activities. It was found that good facilities prevailed in those activities in which participation was greatest. We would naturally expect to find a high correlation between good facilities and participation. However, despite very mediocre facilities swimming was engaged in to a great extent. On the other hand with fairly good facilities there was little recreational participation in apparatus, tumbling, soccer, and volleyball. The activities having the poorest facilities were skiing, rowing, horseback riding, handball, golf, fencing and horseshoes. Unquestionably, the low participation in rowing, riding and skiing is due to the unavailability of facilities. With greater opportunities for participation it is probable that badminton, golf, handball and horseshoes would have proven even more popular.

In conclusion, the physical educators in California have been interested in providing for the recreation of their students and they have contributed more in this regard than any other agency in their institutions. As a whole, they have stressed the recreative aspects of the service curriculum to a marked extent. Tennis is taught in thirty-three of these schools, badminton in twenty-seven, swimming, volleyball, and golf in twenty-five, handball in eighteen, social dancing in seventeen, riding in twelve, horseshoes in ten, hiking in six, rowing in five and skiing in three. Good intramural and intercollegiate programs prevail in most colleges and universities. Up to this point there is a good deal of similarity in what has been offered for student body recreation in the different schools.

In the margin of leisure which is left to students after their participation in the above-mentioned programs provision for recreation must be made. In most of the schools the directors feel that this responsibility is discharged by making available the free use of the facilities and equipment when they are not being utilized by the curricular, intramural, or interschool activities. There are, on the other hand, a few directors who feel a strong responsibility for the students' total recreation. They feel that merely making the facilities available is not enough. They feel that great efforts must be made to encourage the students to recreate in sports. They endeavor to provide for as much free play as possible. About once a month on a Friday or Saturday night they promote an all-school recreational night. In addition to this they will sponsor an all-school dance at frequent intervals. They will encourage the development of sport clubs and they will support them in every way possible. They may arrange with the students for hikes, outing events—perhaps a recreational night or play day with some neighboring institutions. They may take large groups of interested students to outstanding sports events. All of these things and more is the recreation-minded physical educator doing for the leisure time of the student body in various California schools.

As a whole the recreational sports programs in the California colleges and universities are outstanding. However, most of them need to go one step further in this recreation-minded age—that is, if they have the time, the inclination and the administrative approval.

SHALL WE TEACH PUBLIC HEALTH IN THE HIGH SCHOOL?

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A suggestion that the study of public health should be made a requirement of the high school course of study would undoubtedly cause rebuttal on the part of many high school principals and administrators who would insist that the high school curriculum is already overcrowded and has no room for additional subjects which are not definitely a preparation for industry, professional occupation or college entrance. They might emphasize the point also, that most public health work of the past has been achieved through the administration of mass methods directed by a few and that individual awareness of this work is not essential for the reason that the individual need not be aware of the work to profit by it. They would perhaps point out that public health knowledge sufficient to meet the needs of the individual is embodied in courses already present in the curriculum, such as biology, civics, social and general science, hygiene and physical education, economics and history, and some might even suggest that the dissemination of public health information is the duty of state and community health organizations. While at first glance these statements may seem logical to the layman, it is immediately obvious to the individual trained in public and school health education who is aware of the possibilities for integration of school and community health teaching, that they are largely the expressions of those who do not realize the true needs and values of public health knowledge.

It is probable that many who are responsible for the administration of public education lack a fundamental knowledge concerning health matters. It is these individuals who keep closed the door of opportunity for the dissemination of health knowledge which is of great social significance. While they give health the top-ranking position in the objectives of education, it is probable that very often the position is merely an honorary one. Like the member "ex-officio" and the "office emeritus", it wears the badge of honor and receives acclaim but is seldom taken seriously. That such a situation is true, is disconcerting to those who would give honor where honor is due. It is discouraging to those who are serious about the business of health and who would like to see present-day education built upon the keystone of health knowledge, consciousness and desire, for after all, of what value education without health to enjoy it?

In some states and in many of the larger cities it is true, health education is an integral part of the public high school curriculum but in these few instances it is also very often true that the only tangible evidences of health teaching are the results of programs of physical education and not of teachings pertinent to personal and community health. In some instances in the upper junior high grades, facts relative to the cerebrum, cerebellum, synapses and the sympathetic and autonomic nervous systems are taught along with other similar facts of anatomy and physiology. Obviously, such facts are of little interest to the pupil and of little value in the true health knowledge sense. The pupil can do nothing with such knowledge that will be of value to him in the course of his own development or in his understanding of the problems which are pertinent to the actual existence of his social groups. In such instances the poor choice of course content can hardly be justified.

In discussing with the educator the values of a high school course in community and applied hygiene should we not point out the fact that it is but a small percentage of the high school enrollment that enters college and that only these few are ever subjected to efficient instruction through college courses in personal and community hygiene, regarding such matters as vaccination, immunity, quarantine, isolation, sanitation, mental hygiene, protection of food, milk and water supplies, communicable diseases and their social significance and the needs, problems and costs of local, state, federal and private health agencies? Should we not emphasize the general need of such information? After all, what good all the preparation for general and professional occupation if the individual is to be incapable of meeting his own health needs; if he is to be ignorant of the differences between the trained medical man and the quack and his cure-alls; of the precautions which should be taken to insure the normal growth and development of his off-spring; of the need for and values of periodic health examinations for his off-spring and for himself and of the location of medical services and sources of health information?

Is the high school curriculum already overcrowded and has it no room for additional subjects? If so, it is probably a static curriculum not elastic enough to permit of change in keeping with the ever changing needs of society. Is the

educator not aware of the fact that the progress of public health through the administration of mass methods is frequently achieved in spite of, and not because of, general knowledge concerning the particular problems and that the costs of such problems are magnified because of such ignorance; that individual awareness of this work would make the work more efficient and the results more gratifying? As for the efficiency of the public health teaching embodied in the subjects which comprise the general high school curriculum, is it not for the most part superficial, a mere scratching of the surface? Are all high school students subject to the same studies and should the dissemination of public health information be the duty of state and community health organizations exclusively? After all, what better place and what better time to reach the multitude with vital information than in the high school?

It is probable that the day is not far distant when the high school curriculum will be faced with the need for change in method and content to the extent that its evolution during the past fifty years will seem to have been a mere experimental process. The teaching of community hygiene will be one of the changes commanding major interest, so why not start now with such teaching and in so doing be progressive in fact as well as in theory? We know that the prime desire of adults is health. Why not then a required or elective course in the high school preferably in one of the middle years, concerning matters of community health and hygiene to supplement the elementary school teachings of personal health? Such a course to be broadly comprehensive, concerned with the problems of public health already mentioned, replacing the old and empirical theories and the dogmas of races and families, with the most recent scientific facts concerning health and hygiene. After all, why not? The problems of social and general hygiene become more complicated and pertinent each day and the young men and women terminating their formal education with the last high school year are more in need of such information than ever before. It is probable that such a course would be readily elected by that portion of the student body which would have the greatest need for it.

Education rather than legislation should be the key-word in matters concerning the public health. Such a policy would produce lasting values. Why not then, more experiment along these lines than has been apparent to date?

The basic curriculum need not suffer, yet the total needs of the individual may be more completely met.

TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS AND THE RURAL PROBLEM

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Iowa State Teachers College

In preparing this paper twenty-one questionnaires were sent to teacher training institutions in the Central District in an effort to find out what is being done to train the prospective small elementary and rural school teacher to teach physical education to her own pupils. All of the questionnaires were returned. An effort was made in the questionnaire to limit the questions to those courses planned primarily for this group of teachers. It is hard to word a questionnaire so that the answerer will give back just what is desired by the questioner, and it is hard for the questioner to interpret the answers just as the answerer would want them interpreted. No doubt a free discussion in a meeting where each institution could state its own case would give a truer picture of conditions as they really are.

It is significant that 100 per cent of the questionnaires were returned. It shows, I believe, that this problem of training the ordinary classroom teacher to teach physical education to the children in her own room is a vital one and one which State Teachers' Colleges are taking seriously. And why shouldn't we, if what we really are concerned about is bringing individuals to a state of being physically educated? We all agree, I believe, that this business of becoming physically educated must start early—even before the school years—and yet most of our administrators seem to think that it is something that begins in high school or college. At least it is here that we find our best trained teachers of physical education and our most expensive equipment and facilities. The colleges even have an edge on the high schools in this matter. Look at our swimming pools, our athletic fields, and our gymnasia—where do we find them?

That the developing of skills and habits of play in childhood results in playing adults is shown by those who elect activity classes in our colleges. Those who have had impoverished activity lives

as children, or have had unhappy experiences in the kind of activity offered to them or in the method in which the activity was presented, are the ones who come to college desiring to be excused from such classes. I believe that many of the teachers of physical education in Teachers' Colleges would testify—if they have taken the pains to gain this information—that the children (especially girls) who got their elementary education in the rural or small elementary school where there was no trained teacher make up the largest number of our unskilled college women.

In our class work at Cedar Falls we are dividing many of our classes into skill sections by Dr. Humiston's motor ability test, and in interrogating the members of the lowest groups in my classes I have learned that most of them had their early training in a rural or small elementary school. In a survey made by Dr. Humiston of our student body of women she found that the girl who had not had teachers especially trained in physical education and who had attended small elementary schools stood the greatest chance of scoring low in the motor ability test.

Iowa has approximately four hundred fifty thousand school children and about two hundred thousand of these are in our rural schools—a place in Iowa, at least, where there will never be an especially trained teacher of physical education. It seems obvious that if these children are going to be physically trained, the rural school teacher must do it.

In my mind the first requisite of such teaching is that the teacher herself must feel the importance of this subject in the lives of the children under her supervision. Probably the thing that will make her feel this importance above everything else is that she herself shall have participated in such activities with pleasure and success. It is doubtful if any amount of theorizing or any amount of forcing will accomplish this end so successfully.

Other elements contributing toward making her a successful teacher of physical education will be a knowledge of a wide-spread variety of activities, ability to teach these activities, and the power to widen her repertoire of such activities through her ability to interpret new materials from time to time from the literature at her disposal. Also, we might well expect that this teacher will make the best use of the activities which she teaches if she realizes what concomitant learnings may accrue from her teaching when she uses the opportunities as they arise. Educational philosophy teaches us that we learn to do by doing in an environment of happiness and success. Health, safety, and character education—including good citizenship—are qualities that may be acquired through a program of activity better than in any other way, and they are learned only *when* they are practiced and as they are practiced.

It is with a background of this philosophy that I sent out my questionnaire in an effort to find out how the other Teachers' Colleges in this District feel on the subject.

My first question was, "Name what special and separate courses you offer in which you give instruction to prospective rural and small elementary school teachers in the methods of teaching physical education to children." Six of the twenty-one answered that no courses were offered especially for this group. Some of these six said that these teachers are privileged to choose any course offered the majors in physical education; others that they take the same work that is required of all the other students in the institution. One answered that no special courses are required of any students so long as the required number of hours are fulfilled.

Where there were special classes, courses in Plays and Games and in Rhythmic Activities seemed most common. Usually the course in Plays and Games seemed to encompass a wide variety of activities. All reported that Folk Dances and Singing Games are taught; fourteen that Interpretative Rhythms are taught. All were teaching "Lead Up and Team Games" and "Ground Stunts." Only seven reported "Apparatus Stunts," and five, "Rope Stunts." Eleven of the twenty-one offer "Combat Activities." Seventeen offer "Individual and Dual Games," but only seven mentioned that participation in out-of-school activities, such as picnics, skating, coasting, hiking, etc., are a part of their course of study. Fourteen reported that health education is taught but only two mentioned that it is taught incidentally as a part of the activity courses.

Twelve reported safety education as a part of the preparation of the rural teacher; two mentioned that it was taught in connection with the activity courses. Nine checked character education as being taught and only one mentioned it as connected with the activity program. Eight checked gymnastics and posture training. Four checked posture training only and two mention posture as being an incidental learning in connection with all activity. All but two schools reporting give college credit for some or all of the professional work offered this particular group of teachers. All but three give opportunity for these teachers to choose other classwork for their own enjoyment. Of these, the ratio varies from five professional and one recreational to one professional and five recreational. Of the three who did not offer recreational class work, two mentioned providing for it in W. A. A. and after-school programs.

Four stated that no opportunity was offered for planning a course of study. Five said there was a limited amount of this made possible in theory classes. Eleven stated that the students made courses of study but if the replies were interpreted correctly, this course of study was for some future use or in connection with some hypothetical situation and not for use in their own class work. Four-

teen answered "yes" to the question, "Do they get practice in interpreting printed descriptions of all varieties of activities?"—four answered "some," and three said "no." Fifteen answered "yes" to the question, "Do they get practice in teaching these activities to groups in their own class and in judging performance?"—five said "some," and one said "no." One school gave as the reason for not allowing this practice more extensively, the large enrollment in each class.

In the course offered at Iowa State Teachers College for the preparation of the rural and small elementary school teachers in the teaching of physical education, the members of the class are divided into squads or committees of from eight to twelve students. Usually they are divided according to their motor ability since they seem to enjoy most participating with those of their own degree of skill. Each group chooses its own course of study or unit of work from seven types of activities listed in three divisions of difficulty. Or they may bring in entirely new items of activity under each type of work if they choose. For instance, if they wish to bring in some folk dance, stunt, or game that is not listed, they may do so. Or if most of the group choose to do a certain stunt or game which is not suited to the health or structure of any member of the group, this member may substitute for that stunt another which she feels she may do with safety and success. All the members of the group contribute toward the interpretation of the descriptions and the working out of the activities. Each group draws up its own list of character, health, safety, and citizenship traits which they hope to live by while they participate in these activities. They are urged to list nothing that they do not consider important or which they feel they will not live up to.

A part of their unit of work is to plan "out-of-school projects" such as picnics or hikes with activities suitable for such occasions. Where the planning of food is a part of the program, a well-rounded and nutritious meal is planned as a part of the health associates. They coast, skate, ride bicycles, or play games together during the class hour and after school. By the time the term is over they have become well acquainted because they have worked together, played together, discussed, compromised, and cooperated. The course does not belong to the teacher but to the students. The teacher functions only as an adviser when called upon and as a very occasional lecturer.

When the members of a squad feel that they have completely learned a number of items of activity in their unit, the teacher tests them in a sampling of each type and then assigns to each student certain activities for her to test. The student writes a plan for the testing in which she gives evidence that she knows the important features of the activity in which each person should be skilled if she can truly say that she has mastered it. In a folk dance, for instance, she must be able to recognize its music and give its name; she must show by her performance that she knows the formation in which the dance is done, knows the individual steps and the sequence of steps, and can keep the rhythm throughout the dance. Each of the twenty-seven items in the unit is tested in this fashion before the unit can be said to be completed. At the close of the term the members of each squad or committee plan and give a demonstration using the materials that have been learned during the term.

When it is understood that each section or type of activity offers from thirty to fifty or more choices, and since we usually have at least four squads in the class, you can realize that these demonstrations take on a very different nature for each squad, thereby giving each member of the class a knowledge of at least three times as many activities as her own group had worked on.

We feel therefore, that through this type of class work we are able, in one class meeting only three days a week for one term, to give prospective teachers of rural and small elementary schools as wide a knowledge of activities that she can really use in her own school as we were able to give in three terms before. At the same time each prospective teacher is learning to plan a course of study; she is learning to interpret printed material and teach it to her group; she is learning to judge when the activities are really learned and performed accurately; she is learning to plan and execute a demonstration and incidentally learning that a demonstration should consist of and come as a culmination of the regular work done in the class.

She has learned that out-of-school activities such as skating, coasting, picnicking, etc., should function as a part of a physical education program because she herself has found that it is fun to do these things. She has learned that health education is something you *do* and not something you talk about, because she has learned to absent herself from the group when she has a fresh cold; to avoid facing light when listening to a lecture; to keep herself and her clothing clean so that she will be acceptable to her group; and so on. She learns that cooperation in her group, consideration of others in sharing, in getting out and putting away equipment, in sticking to a project until it is finished, is being a good citizen and is part of character training; and she practices these things. She is becoming safety conscious in at least one situation because she helps in keeping the activities in which she is participating safe. She learns that foresight and caution are the opposite of fear and accidents.

At this same time she is learning a *method* of *teaching* physical education to her own pupils in which they can develop independence, self-reliance, and initiative, because she has seen it function in her own class work. And incidentally she has five terms left in which she may choose activities for her own enjoyment.

THE CALIFORNIA HIGH SCHOOL PHYSICAL EDUCATION WORKSHOP FOR MEN

H. R. YOUNGMAN

During the week of August 12-17, 1940, the California High School men in Physical Education held their first Workshop and Coaching School. It was patterned after the idea which has proved so popular in the east, a week of concentrated study, discussion and demonstration under outstanding leadership. The California Workshop differed from those other schools, though, in that it not only stressed the activities which we recognize as inter-school sports but other activities that are becoming a vital part of our physical education program because of their carry-over value.

The week's program was full, a day starting at 8:00 A. M. and running through until 10:00 P. M., with only time off for lunch and dinner. The interest was keen, all classes well attended, and everyone in attendance, at the end of the week, was enthusiastic about what he had received.

The 1940 school included among its leaders outstanding men in their chosen fields, most of them of national prominence. Dean Cromwell, "the maker of champions," headed the track and field classes. Everett Dean of Stanford University conducted the basketball clinic. He was assisted by several of the Stanford boys in demonstrating his drills and methods of teaching fundamentals. John "Ox" Da Grosa lectured on modern football, offense, defense and strategy, using fifteen or twenty high school boys during his demonstration period. Tom Stow, tennis professional of national note and coach at the University of California, instructed in tennis. Peter Hay, golf professional at Del Monte, had charge of the golf classes. H. C. MacQuarrie, archery teacher and demonstrator, certainly won a host of friends while he was interesting fifty or sixty physical education teachers in the advantages of the bow and arrow as a recreational activity. Chuck Keeney, University of California, in diving, and Jack Hewitt, Oregon State College, in swimming, conducted a very interesting and instructive water activities program. Henry Schmidt, trainer at Santa Clara, spent a most interesting hour each day in train methods and emergency first aid.

The organization and adminstrative side of the physical education program was ably handled by C. L. Glenn, Director of Physical Education, Los Angeles City School, and Bill Lopez, Supervisor of Athletics in Los Angeles. Bill Lopez covered the administration of the athletic program while Mr. Glenn led discussions on the responsibility of the physical education teacher to the community.

The school was a success. At the close of the sessions it was voted to continue in 1941. The same committee will be in charge. The program will be enlarged. The time allotted will be increased from five days to eight. The 1941 school will be headed by four outstanding men, all nationally known in their fields of athletic endeavor. "Buck" Shaw of Santa Clara University will handle football. Sam Barry of the University of Southern California will be in charge of basketball. Brutus Hamilton, track and field coach at the University of California, will be with us. Harry Wolter, baseball coach at Stanford and former American League Star, will head up baseball. The organization program will be under the supervision of Hal Orion, our State Director of Health and Physical Education. The program will again include golf, archery, tennis, swimming, and training methods. We hope to add tumbling and gymnastics, wrestling, and some other activities. Most of the 1941 activities will be of the participating type.

We feel that the Workshop has proven its value in one year and is here to stay.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE SUPERINTENDENT OR PRINCIPAL AND THE DIRECTOR OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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As I, in the capacity of a school administrator, begin the discussion of the relationship which should exist between an administrator and a director of physical education, may I say that I have served in the capacity of athletic director as well as administrator, and shall endeavor to treat the subject from the viewpoint of both. Furthermore, may I say that I shall not dwell in the realm of the theoretical, but rather attempt to set forth certain ideas which have come as a result of practical experience. At times I am prone to believe that too much emphasis is placed on theory as we attempt our respective tasks in the field of education, and we face failure as a result of not being able to adjust our policies and programs to meet the particular and peculiar needs and conditions of the community in which we find ourselves engaged.

A great deal has been said about the relationship between administrator and staff personnel, or teacher participation in administration. The particular interest in this article is the relationship which has to do with the director of physical education in the administration of the school program. The director of physical education, whether man or woman, must possess certain qualifications and broad conceptions of the challenge of education before he or she is entitled to the right of participation in the administration of any program of education. As we consider education in terms of the needs of boys and girls there should come to mind many of the multiple forces which play a part in developing the individual, the educator, so that he may rise above the petty and insignificant, that he may rise above pronounced ego, that he may lose himself in that intangible and undefinable something so much more important than self. Is it too much to say that no teacher in the great field of education can be acutely conscious of his or her task unless consideration of these forces plays an important part in the formulation of a well defined philosophy of education so essential to every teacher? Were one asked to define one's own philosophy of education, it is to be hoped that, regardless of the influence of pragmatism, progressivism, integralism, eclecticism, or any of the other theories of philosophy, the answer would show that person or teacher to be conscious of the fact that no philosophy of education is sufficient which fails to take in the totality of the personality, which fails to regard the individual as a spiritual entity as well as a mental and physical being. If we are to continue to enjoy the privilege of living under a government founded on the principles of democracy, then it behooves the educational institutions of our great country to educate each succeeding generation in these principles. It is rather safe to assume that many of these principles are doomed if the concomitant development of the mental, physical, and spiritual forces of the individual is neglected.

In my opinion, all directors of physical education should have, in addition to a philosophy of education proper, a very pronounced philosophy of physical education. R. J. Francis, director of physical education, of the University of Wisconsin, says, "Philosophy in human experience is an attempt to tell people what to do, and why it should be done."[1] I feel that Mr. Francis could well have added, "With regard to one's conception of his obligations to his Supreme Being, his social order, and to himself." Is the physical education philosophy held by physical education directors simply a traditional acceptance of the mechanical procedure set up by another person, or does it go further and show why certain values are attached to the various features of the activity? Again Francis says that in one's philosophy of physical education one must sense (1) a knowledge of society, (2) functions of education in society, and (3) the discovery of how physical education can best serve in training boys and girls in democratic principles of living.[2] Just as much, if not more, emphasis should be placed on the why's as on the how's.

A true director of physical education will not only be qualified to direct his program proper, but in addition will have a broad concept of the general purposes of education.

Now in the actual consideration of the relationship between the administrator and physical education director, it is not unreasonable for the administrator to expect the director to have certain concepts and qualifications discussed in the preceding paragraphs. Should the director not be characterized by proper training and true insight into the real significance of his program as it should relate to the entire program of education, then certainly he has not earned the right to certain privileges or participation in the administrative policies of the institution.

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[1] R. J. Francis, "Toward a Philosophy of Physical Education," *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, 10:216-217, April, 1939.

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 218-219.

Now for a list of certain things the director should do in initiating his program, and in turn, consider each briefly. These things not only have influence on the immediate program, but certainly have a far reaching and tremendous effect on the public in general becoming more receptive to physical education in its true sense. After all, a program of physical education which is to play the part primarily designed for it in the optimum development of boys and girls, all boys and girls, is somewhat in its infancy when compared to the subject matter feature of the curriculum which for so long has laid major emphasis on the three R's.

(1) The physical education director will present to the administrator a well defined tentative program which he hopes to carry out. During a conference with the administrator suggestions may be passed back and forth until the program receives endorsement of the administrative officer. This endorsement naturally entitles the director, or should at least, to exercise his own initiative in administering his program—after all it is the children's program under his direct supervision and not the program of the administrator except as it relates itself to the entire educational program. (2) The director will bring his program close to the public through the press, health agencies, safety programs, youth organizations, Christian movements, various athletic programs, etc. No department and its functions should be brought closer to the public than that of physical education. (3) The director will see that his program takes in every boy and girl in the system. Even in cases of physically handicapped children, the director should find some way for them to express themselves in connection with the activities. (4) The director will not allow the idea of his program to be that of play and play alone. He will see that its real significance is revealed to the boys and girls through a masterful manner of administration and program enrichment, and not through coercive methods. (5) The director will be systematic and rigid in requiring attendance as he would were he the head of any other department. He must also have enough informal discipline, that is, the type of discipline that comes from within the students, to keep his program functioning in orderly routine. (6) The director will not carry on his program with the wrong spirit of competition prevailing. Rather he will work on the idea of the student working in competition with self, and in cooperation with others. The function of any educational program in the life of the individual should be that of service and cooperation with others, rather than developing a desire to defeat others through one's own superiorities. (7) The director will not stop at physical education in his program having to do with an improvement of the physical, but he will strive to make his program function in such a manner as to be conducive to wholesome mental attitudes, and sound ethical and moral development as well. (8) The director will cooperate with the heads of other departments. He will welcome constructive criticism, and through the agency of his department strive at all times to foster and promote professional congeniality among all departments.

Now may I enumerate and discuss briefly certain things which an administrator should do in giving his cooperation to the physical education director that his program will be a success. (1) The administrator will realize that his chief duty is that of general supervision over the entire educational program and the actual carrying out of the physical education program will be left to the initiative of the director. So many administrators, in the opinion of the writer, make the mistake of delegating duties and then not being able to "hands off" while these duties are being carried out. It seems the wise administrator should realize that his success largely depends upon his ability to surround himself with a qualified staff personnel and then to permit them to function. (2) The administrator should assist in every way possible the attempt of the physical education director to bring the program close to the public. His office carries certain prestige and entre which should be used advantageously. (3) The administrator will take every opportunity to make all students, and parents, as well as the general public conscious of the vitalizing force of a well defined program of physical education. (4) The administrator will support the director in all problems of discipline serious enough in nature to warrant his official attention. He will intercede when disgruntled parents who are uninformed interfere. He will insist upon regular attendance of physical education classes the same as class attendance in any other department. (5) The administrator will call the director into conference when preparing the budget to meet the needs and requirements of the physical education department. After all he should realize that if he has exercised good judgment in employing the director, the director will know more about the instructional material and physical equipment of his department than anyone else. Should the director be permitted to recommend expenditures on his department, in all probability a great deal of false economy would be avoided.

The following paragraph is taken from Dennis H. Cook, Ray L. Hamon and A. M. Proctor, "Principles of Public School Administration":

> "The only reason why schools should exist at all is to provide educational opportunities for boys and girls. The opportunities are provided primarily through classroom activities. The entire overhead organization, therefore, is incidental to the classroom teacher. Educational administration should exist only in order to create classroom situations where boys and girls may participate in life-like activities under the guidance of competent teachers.

Any administrative organization which stops short of including the teachers cannot be effective in improving education. The class room teacher is the key to both the administrative and instructional programs, and must be considered by the board of education and school officers. The ideas, practices, and enthusiasm of teachers may be utilized to give life to the school organization and guarantee its effectiveness through professional teacher's meetings and actively functioning committees of teachers. Any administration which is 'handed down' to teachers is almost invariably an educationally weak and inadequate one."[3]

It is not to be questioned that many programs of education have failed to function as adequately as they should, due to such "handed down" prescriptions. Just as certainly will any physical education program be ineffective unless it be headed by a capable director, and then in turn the director be given a chance to participate in the administration of his program. In the "Health and Physical Education Journal," April, 1939, R. J. Francis has an article, "Toward a Philosophy of Physical Education." He summarizes this philosophy in nine points, and it would be well for an administrator who is fortunate in having a physical education program to include these nine points in his philosophy of education. The summary as given by Francis is as follows:

1. Skill in physical education activities is effective to social living in a 1939 culture.

2. Physical education is a means of enriching life's experiences. (When skill rises to the level at which the appreciative sense is enhanced, then art begins to appear.)

3. Physical education is consistent with democratic principles.

4. Physical education is a desirable means of compensating for a static, sedentary life.

5. Physical education is one method of bringing about the desired ends of total education.

6. Physical education lends itself to the reduction of juvenile crime.

7. Physical education is worthy of a place in dealing with the leisure time problem.

8. Physical education is a valuable instrument in developing integrated, emotionally adjusted human beings.

9. Physical education is a means of helping people live together in a more effective manner.[4]

In concluding this discussion of the relationship between administrator and physical education director, may I throw a challenge to each. May the director make every effort to prepare himself to formulate in all its phases and to administer in all effectiveness his program, and in turn may the administrator be cooperative, tolerant, and professional to the extent that he welcome at all times the participation, not only of his director of physical education, but all members of his staff. Only through such spirit can an educational program function effectively in the lives of boys and girls.

[3] Dennis H. Cook, Ray L. Hamon, and A. M. Proctor, *Principles of Public School Administration* (New York: Educational Publishers, Inc., 1940), p. 50.

[4] R. J. Francis, "Toward a Philosophy of Physical Education", *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, 10:216-217, April, 1939.

TEAM COACHING PROCEDURES AS MODELS FOR ABILITY GROUPING AND INDIVIDUALIZATION IN THE PHYSICAL EDUCATION PROGRAM

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It is not the purpose of the author to condemn specifically any teaching methods now being used, but rather to point out the possibilities of improvement by adopting some of the time-proven methods and devices that are being and have been utilized by our successful athletic coaches. We might say that there are two groups of teachers who have been extremists—those who are ultra-modern and those who are old-fashioned. Coaching has this division also. The modern trend has given us too many yardsticks by which to measure abilities that need not be measured. If such measurements are attempted, so much time is consumed, that the real reason for the existence for a period of instruction is lost. We have a great need for less measuring and more developing; a reduction in the time spent on testing, and a corresponding increase in instruction and in practice. Testing and measurement are modern educational maladies too frequently resorted to by teachers who are not sufficiently equipped to obtain maximum results by the application of successfully proven methods, or who are just plain lazy.

The other group—the old-fashioned group—fails to recognize many of the changes which characterize modern education. They believe that the only value is that which has been translated into improved skills in whatever subject is taught. A gross knowledge of a given subject, along with student achievements and skills, is beyond their comprehension. For instance, in many classes in health education a student is acclaimed proficient if he can answer the questions of a test. He may be able to describe immunization, the physiology of the body, and the functions of various organisms; but on the other hand, he himself may not have been vaccinated and may have no concern about the water supply of the city in which he lives. Our aim in education should be the development of practice along with knowledge, regardless of the subject matter or the field of study. There is a decided need for objective measurements, but in most cases our standards may be achieved with a minimum of testing and a maximum of teaching.

It is with this thought in mind that I shall make an effort to present to you the technique of developing knowledge and skills on the athletic field, where there are no periods for marking and measuring, and where the individual who can throw the farthest, or kick the greatest distance, is not always the one who is the forward passer or the punter in the organized group that composes a team. It is a combination, as mentioned before, of knowledge and skill, and is the result of an intelligent, organized, methodically correlated, and well-balanced teaching program. It is simple in its conception, with thoughtfully selected essentials as a base, and with abundant latitude for a teacher to treat to a maximum the abilities of individuals. Coaching procedures in such teaching of athletics as may be applied to our physical education program would need very little adjustment. Both include simple activities, from a pedagogical standpoint, and are compatible. That is, they have common objectives—the development of physical skills, the mastery of coordination, both physical and mental, the speeding up of reaction time, and the combination of these essentials with rhythm. The popular conception is that the athletic coach has a much easier task than the instructor in gymnastics, game skills, dancing, or rhythmics. This is not correct. As a matter of fact, the common error is to believe that a group of boys or girls who report to an athletic coach for an activity is a homogeneous group of selected material, in so far as their physical and mental abilities are concerned. This, like most other conceptions of those who do not understand, is almost entirely incorrect. The only common factor in a group that reports to a coach for any athletic activity is that of interest. We must concede that to be very important in the teaching of any activity. However, the ordinary student, when he or she reports for a class in physical education, is not entirely devoid of interest in the activity about to be taught. The difference in interest, actual or potential, is certainly not great enough to invalidate the primary thesis of this article, i. e., the possibilities of using the same procedures in both cases, with, of course, some necessary adjustments.

In athletics, as in all other activities where instruction is necessary, the motivating factor throughout the entire period of instruction, and the one which insures a maximum of success is the creation and maintenance of interest. In no field of instruction is it so necessary for a teacher or coach, if he expects to be successful, persistently to go over details and fundamentals again and again to insure complete mastery. Every teaching period, whether in the school building or on the athletic field should end with the student satisfied that through his work and the instruction of the coaches,

he is better able to execute a block or tackle, a punt or pass. And more than that, he should be not only anxious, but enthusiastic, for work the next day.

Dr. William Reed, of Kansas University, said a few years ago, that if he had absolute control of his faculty's extra-curricular time, he would compel them to spend at least two days a week during the fall season on the football field, for the purpose of learning how interest could be maintained in an activity that ordinarily would soon develop into drudgery. The outstanding characteristic of expert coaching of athletic teams is continuous repetition drill, drill, drill—day in and day out, until mastery has been achieved. Very often, to prevent monotony, the wise coach creates devices and utilizes pedagogical subterfuges to maintain the interest so necessary for successful instruction. I believe that such a procedure in instructing a class in almost any activity could be identical.

Let us examine a rough outline of the activities of a well-organized coaching staff: They first issue a call for candidates. As all of you know who have had the experience, on the day when the so-called candidates present themselves, they will be as heterogeneous a group as could possibly be conceived within any given student body; and, as was mentioned before, the only homogeneity in the group would be their interest. And even here, there are examples where this is extremely remote. For instance, it may be that the candidate reported because his father had been a great player and wanted his boy to follow in his footsteps; or it may happen that a boy is actuated by the thought that it will make it easier to join his favorite fraternity if he makes the football squad. In these and similar instances, the direct interest is not in the sport itself. Furthermore, there will be all sorts of physical sizes and shapes—long and lean; short and fat; there will be mentalities and temperaments that include all feasible extremes. From this group the coaches are expected to mould a perfect operating and coordinated team—physically sound and mentally alert; with quick reaction time, and with a corresponding maximum of moral fibre.

How is this accomplished?

The answer is the same as the answer to "How is an expert job of teaching done in any classroom?" This is what most coaches do:

Let us assume that a hundred boys report for football in the fall. They are strangely parallel to similar groups in the gymnasium or classroom at the same time. First, the coach takes the group that is presented, utilizing the fact that they have, of their own volition, indicated that they want to learn. This is the only advantage the coach has over the ordinary classroom teacher.

When the football group reports, it is put through a short preliminary test to determine their general ability—a test that will automatically relegate individuals to different ability groups. Here is where the first test begins. The superior group is given extra work—additional technique. The second group is used to stimulate the first group to do their best, and they themselves, along with the third group, are always endeavoring to elevate themselves to the next group. The poor group is a substandard group, out of which some can be salvaged and later developed and improved to such a degree that they will move up, one group after another, and become outstanding examples of expert teaching and personal persistance.

As you might imagine, the changes made from time to time among the group, some going up, others going down—depend upon the individual's success in meeting the demands of the group to which he has been assigned, and whose standards are determined by their own ability and progress. After the personnel of these groups has been fairly well established, individualized instruction begins. Here is an opportunity to explore the natural abilities and the instinctive tendencies of each candidate. Eternal vigilance to discover and develop the individual athletic aptitude of each candidate to the maximum can never be relaxed. If he shows some ability as a kicker, he is given special instruction; if a passer or a blocker, he is given every chance through constant practice and correction to develop his ability to the maximum. Daily drills before any new material is taught are essential on the athletic field as in the classroom. From this point, within each squad or group, team play is developed, but only through coordination of the individual's special abilities and accomplishments, improving through daily instruction and practice.

The coach's ten commandments are:

1. Have a day's order (i. e., time allotments which vary according to the needs of the candidates).
2. Daily outline of procedure for each of these periods.
3. Be alert to discover some new talent or ability in the individual.
4. Persist in drill and repetition, aiming for perfect performance.
5. Never forget to stress fundamentals.
6. Do not fall a victim of trick methods, short cuts, or frills.
7. Be enthusiastic, energetic, and industrious.
8. Be exacting and at the same time, pleasant.
9. Be certain in your assignment of individuals to squads. You might have an "All American" on the fourth squad.
10. Above all else, "Be Human."

Here you have a picture which has, I hope, convinced you, as it has me, that the pedagogical mechanics of successful coaches can be applied to classroom teaching with correspondingly desirable results.

INTEGRATED AND/OR DIRECT INSTRUCTION IN HEALTH

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The question under discussion is one which is commonly divided for support into three different groups. One group believes that health instruction should be given only in an integrated program, while another group feels that by direct teaching they secure the best results. There are still others who think that neither extreme is satisfactory and choose both the integrated and the direct methods of teaching for their health programs.

First, since we are talking about health instruction, may I quote the definition which has been so widely accepted by this group. Health instruction is "that organization of learning experiences directed toward the development of favorable health knowledge, attitudes, and practices." No mention is made concerning the "who," the "why," the "where," the "when," the "what," or the "how" of the program. Therefore, it is our responsibility as educators to devise ways and means of best suiting health instruction to our own needs.

The integrated program has found favor with some school authorities. "Integration," according to L. Thomas Hopkins, "is a shorthand word used to designate intelligent behavior. Integrating refers to continuous, intelligent, interactive adjusting."

The "Handbook on Curriculum Study" published by the Oregon State Teachers' Association in cooperation with the State Department of Education contains this definition of integration. "Integration is the process of preserving the 'wholeness' of the thing considered. It implies and involves unity and coherence of the experiences of the learners."

By an integrated program in health, we mean the type of instruction which is given to the child as the need or opportunity for it arises; i. e., any situation with health implications which presents itself for discussion during the varied activities of the school day. This procedure provides an opportunity for health to be taught when and where it naturally fits into the whole school program.

We also know that the "whole" child is sent to school, and it is our job to help educate him. We cannot by some popular method inject doses of this subject or that activity at stated intervals and have the youngster recover from a bad case of disinterest in a specific routine to develop into a genius that will startle the world, but we can all contribute to the education of that child. "Believe it or not," we are all teachers of courtesy and consideration for others, whether we are English teachers, health teachers, or teachers of penmanship. We should also consider the laws of learning, particularly the law of readiness, when we are speaking of an integrated program, for we well know that interest usually depends upon readiness.

For example, a fourth grade group may be working on a geography unit which creates interest in the activities of children in foreign countries. Are not the children ready to compare the health activities of these children in foreign countries, with their own health routine and ideas? They should be able to compare and apply health information received while studying about the foods in the tropics or the clothing of the Eskimo, to their own situations. The interest is there, and health information can readily be given. This should and can be done in an integrated program, but what happens to the children when the teacher is "long" in geography and "short" in health? The children may learn geography without its health implications. The same thing happens when a teacher is "long" in penmanship or "short" in English. The children write perfectly, perhaps, and express themselves poorly.

I have been in school rooms where teachers were giving health instruction during a nature study class or a geography class, or were even learning to spell "health words" in a spelling lesson, but I have also been in many more rooms where the health instruction escaped presentation simply because other things were seemingly more important at the moment, and a grand opportunity for teaching and integrating health information was lost. I have discussed the problem of an integrated health program with many teachers in all grades, and most of them have felt that unless there was a specific time set aside on their program for health instruction, they became absorbed in the daily routine and often forgot health inspections, instruction, and integration. It is quite apparent, therefore, that the great majority of teachers do not realize the part good health plays in their own lives and, hence, do not appreciate the importance of establishing good health ideas and habits in the lives of the children whom they teach.

We do not teach history, mathematics, or language entirely through integration. Why, then, should we teach health entirely through integration? If every teacher were health-minded and had been trained in methods of teaching health as she was trained in arithmetic or spelling methods, we

might expect some valuable work to be carried out in this type of program, but our problem is immediate and urgent. Until all teachers are trained to teach all subjects, until all subjects are taught by all teachers in an integrated program, until administrative pressure is released from tests on so-called fundamentals and better balanced programs are offered, I think we can expect health instruction as such to be neglected in the integrated program. It is generally agreed that that which is everybody's business soon becomes nobody's business.

In 1918 the National Education Association met and officially adopted the seven cardinal objectives of education, in which health was purposely placed first. In many school systems, however, the subject of health has been first in theory only and last in practice. Health as a subject implies definite instruction. Direct teaching in health offers an opportunity for the teacher to give definite instruction during a period set aside for that purpose. Activities which are provided as a means of expression enable the child to put into practice the knowledge he has gained. This type of program focuses attention upon health as it does upon other subjects in the curriculum and insures against treating it in a trite manner.

It has been said that "health is a way of living," and certainly it is true. Thomas Briggs, in his book *Secondary Education,* quotes G. Stanley Hall as follows: "Our intellect is a mere speck afloat on a sea of feeling." Knowledge without the proper attitude toward its use and an opportunity to practice and to form correct habits is of little value. If we all used even the elementary scientific health information we have, how different the picture would be. Do you always obey the safety rules? Do you get enough sleep? Are you all properly immunized? At lunch time, do you eat as Dr. Brown of Stanford University has said many students eat, "grab and gulp," or do you just inhale and run?

In order to execute a health program, we should provide an opportunity for the child to learn, not "incidentally" or "accidentally," but in every way possible, to live healthfully. He should learn to "know," to "do," and to "feel" about health before we have completed our task. But, first, we should be sure that every child has had an opportunity to secure the health knowledge upon which to base his health practices. We can be *sure* that he has at least had that opportunity in the direct instruction program.

Experiments and demonstrations, visual aids and excursions to health centers clarify the factual information. Unless, of course, we find ourselves in the same situation as one teacher did. She couldn't study the cranium in a high school health class, because there wasn't a cranium in town. The student of health does not need a laboratory for his work as he needs a laboratory for research in biology or chemistry. His laboratory is his body, and it is with him always, compelling him to give it attention. He should have the scientific information which will help him wherever he is, if he will but make the application. Direct instruction in health will give him that information and offer suggestions for its satisfactory use.

There are those who wish to use both the direct and integrated methods in health instruction. Through regularly scheduled class periods, the fundamental facts are given to the students. Through the integrated program and activities which are correlated with other subjects being taught, the student has an opportunity to apply his knowledge.

Can we ignore either one of these plans to the exclusion of the other? Does it not take definite and specific instruction to give to each student the basic facts upon which our integrated suggestions, correction, and information are based? Does it not take every teacher in a building, watching each child every day—and all the day—to encourage the use of correct health habits, to give social approval for compliance to social custom, to keep the shades properly adjusted, and to check the temperature and the seating? After a health class has met, is it not necessary for every teacher to continue the health program in her classroom every day? If, through integration specific information has not been completely given, is it not the duty of that teacher to supplement the lesson given with more complete and direct lessons?

How can we limit our health instruction to either direct methods or integration? Neither one can be complete without the other. Since health is a way of living, pupils should know the facts that make that living possible, and they should also have an opportunity to receive guidance throughout the day.

What are we going to do about this situation? Here we are, a group interested in the field of health and physical education listening to the discussions of problems which we are all facing. What are we going to do in our local situations in order that improvements will be made? In practically all school systems the country over, we find more or less activity in curriculum revision. We must see to it that we have not only a committee on health education, but we must see to it that the other committees working on the revision of other subjects are made aware of the relationship of health education to the success of the program.

Teacher training is very important, and until our teachers are trained to teach about health as they are trained to teach arithmetic or language, the health program in our schools will not be adequate. A slogan, "Teachers of health consciously health conscious" might help. Health is often positively or negatively emphasized by the example of the teacher. Wouldn't it be well to have as ex-

amples of healthful living, teachers who exemplify their teachings and encourage the practices they preach?

We have often heard the question, "Should health be 'taught' or should it be 'caught'?" By using various methods of presenting the subject through direct teaching, which insures against crowding it out of the curriculum, health instruction is "taught". It also may be "taught" in an integrated program, providing the teacher sees the importance and the need and has had the training to carry on that type of instruction. By example, health may be "caught".

Kingsley said "Let not the sourfaced teach morals, lest they create a distaste for virtue." This might be paraphrased by saying, "Let not the unhealthy teach health, lest they create a distaste for the joy of living."

Personally, I feel that the question of having "Integrated and/or Direct Health Instruction" should be changed to read "Integrated both/and Direct Health Instruction". We should have first of all direct instruction in health. In addition, we should have a correlated and integrated program. In this way, time is set aside for specific study, and an opportunity is given for integration throughout the school day.

Local situations vary, and it is important that you decide whether the program for you is best taught through integration, through direct teaching, or by using a combination of the two methods.

BASKETBALL REACHES ITS GOLDEN AGE

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In December, 1941, the sport world will celebrate the Golden Anniversary of basketball, for it was in that month just fifty years ago that the late Dr. James Naismith "fathered" the idea of tossing a ball into a couple of peach baskets.

It is a long road from the dimly lighted and poorly ventilated early gymnasium at Springfield College to Madison Square Garden, yet who could have seen at the time that the eighteen young men on two nine-man teams were creating a new sport that would become responsible for the construction of gymnasiums and field houses all over the world? Such, however, has been the history of this game that today is played in fifty different nations.

The late Dr. James Naismith, who died in Lawrence, Kansas, November 28, 1939, had the thrill of living through forty-eight years of the game's development, and as the "father of basketball" he was sent to Germany in 1936 with funds raised in a world-wide drive by players, fans and basketball officials to see the game he had invented played for the first time in the official competition of the Olympic Games. It was on this occasion that Naismith said, "This is the happiest moment of my life," as he addressed the players after they had filed out on the floor behind the flags of their own countries. It truly must have been a happy moment for the inventor, who in his lifetime saw the day come when the sun was never to set on the game he had started in 1891. Although the sun has set on his useful life, he, through two baskets and a soccer ball, has created his own memorial. For whatever its stimulating effects generally may be, there is no doubt that this great American game has inspired widespread interest in cities and towns alike. In one of Newark, New Jersey's athletic centers located at West Side High School over six hundred regularly scheduled games are played annually. 1941 is basketball's fiftieth year of official existence, so as we celebrate the birthday of one of our most popular competitive games, it is important that we become acquainted with the colorful history of this sport.

Birth of the Game

Basketball was not born by chance but was the result of a deliberate research problem. Luther W. Gulick, Dean of the Physical Training Department of the Y.M.C.A. College at Springfield, Massachusetts, gave James Naismith the assignment to devise an indoor game to be played on a seasonal schedule between football in the Fall and baseball in the Spring, a game that would be vigorous and redblooded, yet not too rough for the young men then training at the college to become Y. M. C. A. secretaries. Gulick had assigned Naismith to this task because Naismith had made the statement that it was possible to invent a game that would supply some enjoyable form of recreation, as well as physical development. In writing his first thoughts on this assignment, Dr. Naismith had this to say, "I first tried to modify some of the existing games so that they would meet the requirements, but failed to make any game suitable for indoor work.

I then left out the idea of any individual game and began to think of all the fundamental principles of all games. I discovered that in all team games some kind of a ball was used."

It was then that Naismith combined the fundamentals of lacrosse, soccer football, and duck on the rock. He decided to eliminate tackling because it would be too rough for the players to be thrown on the hard indoor floors.

For goals he sent the janitor in search of two eighteen-inch boxes, but as it was, the janitor had broken up all the cartons for use as firewood. Instead of the boxes he produced a couple of peach baskets. So to the unsung janitor at the training school should go due credit for the part he played in this great experiment.

These baskets were placed on the floor at first, but this position made scoring too easy, so Dr. Naismith elevated them over the players' heads, placing one basket at each end of the rectangular court. The height he selected was nine feet. This was later changed to ten feet. It was also decided that the game should be played with a large ball, with no running allowed. A soccer ball was used at first.

The First Game

The first game was played with nine on each side, as there were eighteen men in the class and all participated. According to Amos Alonzo Stagg, who still has stereopticon slides showing the original baskets, the captains of the two first teams to play the new sport were E. S. Libby and Duncan Patton. To Libby is given the credit of scoring the first goal in the first official game played on January 10, 1892. From the very first the game caught on. Within one month large crowds were watching the games, in which as many as fifty players took part. In later years the number of players was reduced to seven and then to the present five, in 1895.

Naismith then drew up thirteen rules, twelve of which still apply. The first notice of this game appeared in "Triangle," the Springfield college paper in January 15, 1892, under the caption "A New Game." Frank Mahan, a member of the class, suggested that the game be called "Naismith Ball". Naismith objected, and it was agreed since the game was played with baskets and a ball, it should be called basketball.

First Printed Rules

It was in 1894 that the first set of rules governing play was printed. James W. Fletcher, then physical director at the Holyoke Y. M. C. A., learned of the game and wanted to organize teams and have regularly scheduled contests. So he and John Sutcliffe, a printer, went to Springfield to see Dr. Naismith and get from him a set of rules.

Naismith wrote out the regulations governing play. Sutcliffe set them in type and basketball had its first set of printed rules. These rules were used for the first time in a game in the Holyoke gymnasium between the business men's class and the evening class. They constituted the original code of the game. Perhaps the most significant similarity between the original rules and the present code is their emphasis against body contact. For basketball is still essentially a no-contact game. A difference in the original code from that of today's code was in the scoring, three points for a goal, one point automatically for every foul being the former rule.

The first set of rules, however, failed to designate the number of players on each team. The playing time at first consisted of three periods of twenty minutes each. In 1897 the first official Basketball Guide was printed by the American Sports Publishing Company.

The Iron Hoops

To Fletcher must be given the credit for introducing the first iron hoops and nets to replace the peach baskets. Time had to be taken out in games to poke the ball out of the basket with a pole or to climb up to remove it every time there was a score. The breakage of baskets in this way was recurrent, making it necessary to replace them frequently. The iron hoops made their first appearance in 1896 and were of the same diameter as the top rim of old containers which in their final passing left a "fruitful" impression on this grand game.

Rapid Growth

Three very important factors were responsible for the growth of basketball. First, it proved to be a valuable addition to existing programs in physical education for there was a real need for a game played indoors that could be added to the programs of German and Swedish gymnastics which featured exercises given to command and drills with wands, dumb-bells, and Indian clubs or work on the heavy apparatus. Basketball was such an activity, for from its beginning basketball has been a democratic game with universal attraction. The sight of a hoop on the backboard has to all an irresistible urge to toss a ball through it. Here was a game that supplied the vigorous activity desired by the teachers of physical education and one in which the participants had fun at the same time.

The second factor was that the game, lacking uniform playing grounds, could be played almost any place that baskets could be put up. So the game has been played in cement cellars, garages, emptied swimming pools, barns, sheds with dirt floors, on clay courts, in old town halls, dancing palaces, skating rinks, on stages, or in small town theaters, churches, schools, or even in the orchestra pit of the large showhouses.

In some of the larger places the playing area was completely enclosed in a net, often referred to as a cage; and well it might have been for many

were the "wild" contests staged within the enclosure. Many of the courts had slippery floors, low-ceilings with swinging apparatus, pillars and posts, water pipe lines, and low suspension girders helping to impede the progress of the visiting quintets, but serving as an asset to the home club. The latter, familiar with playing conditions, would take advantage of them. Many a point was scored by a well directed toss through the space between the beams or at a marked spot on the ceiling. On courts where the baskets were placed against the wall, it was not unusual for a player to run up half the side of the wall with the ball in his possession in order to make a score more easily. All sorts of experiments were carried on to determine the distance the baskets should be placed from the wall, this distance ranging from flush on the backboards to the twelve-inch extension arm used in the Pennsylvania State League.

The only heating appliance in many of the halls was a large pot stove and woe to the player in a contest who ventured too close to the stove, especially if he was a "hot" player. A small room containing a couple of benches and a sink with cold water served as dressing facilities for the athletes in most places in the early days of the game. After a hotly contested melee, the players would often take turns splashing water on each other in an improvised shower bath fashion.

Besides these many varieties of impromptu indoor courts, the game has also been played out of doors on courts of sand, grass, dirt, cinders and cement with the baskets being set on trees, poles, to the side of the old red barn. The electric light pole in the streets has come in for its share of use because of the added light at night. Some have even tried playing the game on ice with members of the Metropolitan Hockey Club doing the trying. This trial occurred between the halves of a National Hockey League match where the spectators were treated to basketball on ice.

Other Equipment

Along with tricky courts, all variations of backboards came into use, with wood, wire, steel and glass being put to the test. A fan shaped board has just been approved by the rules committee along with the standard rectangular one. The ball, too, has gone through a transformation period. Starting with the aforementioned soccer ball, that in most cases varied in size, shape and quality, the basketball has developed into the lively seamless and laceless ball that fairly tingles as it swishes through the net for a score. Yet old timers in the game will tell you they often played with a ball that would become soft as the game progressed. The result was these balls would not give a true bounce so very little dribbling was done. The records tell also of many a game ending ahead of time because the ball had "exploded" in the battle. Because of the many varieties of balls being used by teams in the early days a contest would be played half the game with the home club's ball and the remainder of the encounter with the visiting quintet's ball.

The Uniforms

The trend in the styles of the uniforms worn by basketball players is a point of interest. In the beginning football togs, with padded elbows and knees, were used. These suits were gradually modified by the introduction of quarter sleeve and sleeveless shirts, shorts and long stockings. Yet in some places it was necessary for the players to wear long trousers, as it was considered improper to expose one's limbs in the presence of the ladies, many of whom were numbered among the early rooters of the game.

In recent years the trend has been towards bright colors and glossy material, such as silk and satin, so that the uniform, like other factors, has added its dash of "color" to the game.

Traveling Teachers

The third reason in the rapid expansion of the game was the fact that it was developed at a college that sent its graduates to work in Y. M. C. A. activities all over the world.

"Duncan Patton introduced the game in India; Genzabard Ishakawa took the game to his homeland, Japan; Charles Harek taught the game in Persia; Louis Riess took the sport to Greece; Emil Thies transplanted the game to his native France; Chester Tobin demonstrated its value to the Turks." [1] Countless other "Y" men introduced it to other nations all over the globe. Dr. Carl Schmidt introduced the game to Germany after seeing a demonstration game at the St. Louis Olympics.

To the soldiers of the United States Army stationed in China, the Philippines and other lands must also go some credit for they played wherever they stayed. Basketball, because of these three main factors, also spread to all parts of the U. S. and Canada, and through its pioneer teachers it leaped across the oceans of the world to bring satisfaction wherever it is played.

Standard Rules

Prior to 1914 three sets of rules were used by groups that exercised jurisdiction over basketball organizations. This made it difficult for teams, coaches and referees. Out of this state of confusion the Joint Rules Committee on basketball was formed in 1914-15, with representatives from Young Men's Christian Association, the Amateur Athletic Association and the National Collegiate Association. Dr. Joseph E. Raycroft became its first chairman. The National Federation of High School and Canadian Amateur Basketball Association were added to this Committee a few years later. This commit-

[1] From a sport report by Ralph Cannon.

tee removed much of the chaotic conditions caused by the conflicting rules and promptly standardized the playing of basketball all over the world.

This same committee was responsible for many new rulings, the most significant being the removal of the center tap after each score; for, ironically enough, the original game did not use the center jump. This feature was an innovation a few years later when it was incorporated by Dr. Gulick in 1896. Play before this date began with the ball being tossed in from the side of the court, the players being lined up at each end of the court making a mad dash to recover it. Naismith opposed the majority changes passed since 1925. Especially did he dislike the rule which required the offensive team to speed down the floor ten seconds after gaining possession of the ball. It was his theory that the defensive team should come up the floor to try to take the ball away. If the decision had been left to him, it is probable that not all the football roughness would have been removed from the game. Naismith in his writings recalls that during the early days it was the duty of the captain to leave a dressing room window open before going out to play. This was done so that in case the customary after-game squabble became too violent, both players and the officials would have an exit. In 1936, because of a dispute over representation, the High School, National Collegiate and the Canadian representatives withdrew from the Joint Rules Committee, and in 1937 the Y. M. C. A. joined the secessionists. This split up the Rules Committees for the first time in twenty-one years.

The Official

It should be noted that in the progress of basketball which was becoming more scientific, the rules of the game became more complicated and technical. This placed an added significance on the rule of the official for he, and he alone, was responsible for the actual administration of the games during play. In order to further the progress of this phase of the game the National Association of Approved Basketball Officials was formed in 1916, under the sponsorship of the Joint Basketball Rules Committee. This organization has at present a membership of over three thousand registered officials. In passing, it should be noted that the game owes much to these whistling men in gray, for they have helped immeasurably in steering this mighty "court-ship" on an even keel.

Coaches Contribution

If one is to cover fully all the contributing factors to this distinctly American game, the names of famous coaches should not be forgotten. Dr. Walter E. Meanwell, formerly of the University of Wisconsin, was one of the most systematic men in the game and one who perfected the many variations of the man to man defense, with the use of big men. The criss-cross and short pass offense were also among his contributions. Dr. L. J. Cooke, of Minnesota, has been credited with working out the five man defense. To Ward Lambert, of Purdue, goes the credit of perfecting the basket-hangar, quick-breaking type of play. Some recognition should go to Clair Bee, whose L. I. U. teams are the annual toast to New York's sport-loving millions. But, in this writer's estimation, top honors go to his scholastic coach at St. Benedicts Prep in Newark, New Jersey, Professor Ernest A. Blood. Here is one of the nation's wonder basketball coaches. During his long forty-four year career at Potsdam Normal, Clarkson College, West Point, Passaic High School and St. Benedict's his teams have scored over 1,000 victories, while a countless army of boys have learned from this old master the correct way to shoot, pass, cut and pivot gracefully on the basketball floor.

Of all the teams that have achieved fame through the medium of basketball two come to mind. One is the Buffalo Y. M. C. A. Germans. This quintet were tops at the turn of the century, winning the tournament at the 1904 Olympics at St. Louis and accumulating a winning streak at one time of one hundred and eleven straight games. The other is the "Original" Celtics of New York, a name now synonymous with basketball wherever it is played. Their roster was composed of such famed players as Johnnie Beckman, Chris Leonard, Nat Holman, Dutch Dehnert, Joe Lopchick, Stretch Meehan, and Pete Barry. The Celtics averaged about 136 games a season playing in about forty different states and traveling over twenty-five thousand miles. Their average in victories was over ninety per cent. To Dutch Dehnert and Pete Barry goes the credit of inventing and perfecting the famous "bucket play" that in time became a fundamental of many of the offensive systems. St. John's University became one of the greatest exponents of this phase of play, by perfecting the double "bucket set-up".

Basketball Bits

Basketball, as we now know it, is the only pure and undiluted major American game. All the other games of major importance are either direct importations of other games or are hybrids of games of foreign origin. Sports statisticians figure that in the U. S. alone more than 5,500,000 basketball games are played annually, while 20,000,000 players compete in the game all over the world and that it is watched and cheered by 90,000,000 spectators.

Although the game originated at Springfield College, it was at Yale University that the first college team was organized, and in 1896 games were played with Wesleyan, University of Pennsylvania and Trinity. It spread like wild fire from one college campus to another, finding greatest development in the Midwest. Within recent years the trend of popularity is moving to the Pacific Coast with teams from that section taking top honors in leading tournaments.

The first National A. A. U. Tournament was held in 1899, and in 1900-01 the Eastern Intercollegiate League was formed by Yale, Princeton, Columbia, Cornell, and Harvard. The Western Conference Universities added it to their varsity athletic programs in 1905.

Through a strong movement in state and regional play the game spread to the interscholastic field with one of the most famous tournaments inaugurated by Amos Alonzo Stagg in 1919 at the University of Chicago. Stagg had introduced the sport to the Midwest in 1893. Now that this tournament has been dropped, the National Catholic Tourney at Loyola, Chicago, stands out as the biggest event of its kind.

In Indiana scholastic circles close to eight hundred teams take part in the state championships. Crowds of 15,000 gather for many of the contests.

The fair sex liked the game also, for basketball was played at Smith College as early as 1892. Standard play for girls on both the two zone and three zone court have made this a very popular activity in the women's program.

Basketball was introduced into my native New Jersey by Lori Prentiss, a teacher at Newark Academy, in September, 1892. A rainy spell having forced the football squad indoors caused Prentiss to use this game as a substitute for the gridiron drills. Later that winter a team from the Academy engaged the 23rd St. Y. M. C. A. in the first official contest in our state. New Jersey, quick to become a hot bed of basketball enthusiasm, points with pride to its many outstanding contributions, and its achievements in the game, the latter including two world's records.

In the early twenties the eyes of the sport public were focused on Passaic High School's team which won one hundred and fifty-nine consecutive games. Just about the time that Hackensack (N. J.) High School broke this streak, the girl's team of East Rutherford High School started one of their own successful runs and won one hundred and four consecutive contests. In independent basketball the Leonard Spark-Plug Girls won sixty-three games in the Newark Recreation League before the Prudential Insurance Company lassies stopped them.

Of individual stars, Bobbie Thompson, of Passaic High School, scored 1,000 points in a single season. Frank McDermott, of St. Benedict's Prep, made seventy-three points in a single contest.

Panzer College, of East Orange, N. J., equalled the national record for intercollegiate basketball, established by Long Island University, in attaining its forty-fourth consecutive victory. Johnnie Beckman, of Bogota, N. J., when a member of the Original Celtics, was considered by the experts as the greatest player of all time. Matthew "Pat" Kennedy, of Hoboken, is recognized as the game's best referee. Other Jersey man who have attained national fame in basketball while in college are Frank Hill, coach of Rutgers University; Stretch Meehan, of Seton Hall; Art Hillhouse, of L. I. U.; Pete Jones, of Panzer; Johnny Rusma, of West Point; Jimmie Gordon, of the Newark Y. M. H. C.; Carl Baumann, of Springfield College; and Mattie Begovitch, of St. Johns University.

By-products

Other men who spend their time teaching boys to pop away at the elevated hoop with an inflated ball have worked out many variations and modifications of basketball, such as Ash Can Ball, by Robert Sterling, of Panzer College; Goal-Hi, by Dr. Forrest Allen, of Kansas University; Pee-Wee Ball, by the writer; Kiddy Car Basketball, Nine Court Ball, Three-on-a-Side Ball, Left-handed Basketball and Basketball Golf. Countless other skill activities have come from basketball as it is played in the playfields of the land.

In the swimming pool of Curtis High School, Staten Island, infantile paralysis victims, with the aid of an instructor, have worked out a game of "wet" basketball that is being used in a rehabilitation program, which is gradually restoring the use of the limbs.

Basketball has reached the "Golden Age" in more ways than one. Ned Irish, the net promoter at Madison Square Garden, is one of the many who has capitalized on the game's golden financial opportunities.

So here's a birthday greeting to a game that in half a century moved from a gym class activity to a special feature on the Olympic program, truly an international pastime.

GUIDANCE IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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An appropriate introduction to the above subject would be a comparison of the viewpoints of three educational psychiatrists and an education philosophy professor. Let us examine a few excerpts from *Student Guidance Techniques*, written by Paterson, Schneidler and Williamson, three persons who are interested in guidance from the psychological point of view.

"The guidance movement has reached the stage where individual diagnosis is now recognized as an essential first step in the development of an adequate guidance service for a youth. . . . A serious obstacle to the immediate expansion of worthwhile student guidance services is to be found in the lack of technically trained workers who can be entrusted with the heavy responsibilities necessarily involved in the attempt to provide adequate guidance for youth. . . . Another obstacle to the development of effective student personnel programs in schools and colleges is the alleged indifference of teachers to the needs of their students.

"Guidance counselors are concerned with students as individuals in the process of adjusting to life. In this capacity the counselor steps out of the role of a mere teacher in order to consider the student as an integrated human being. Paradoxical as this may seem, the present educational system makes it extremely difficult for the teacher to do more than impart information and train students in a specific branch of study. In order to maintain that concern for the student as a whole person, which has sometimes been possible in smaller educational institutions, it has been necessary in larger institutions to rely on specialists. The guidance counselor is that person who attempts to obtain a picture of all the complex lines of influence which bear down upon the individual student, in order that the student may be helped to adjust to his present problems and to plan wisely for the future activities.

"In order to meet these varied student difficulties, the counselor must be prepared to render a number of guidance services. These may be classified as follows:

1. Educational guidance.
2. Vocational guidance.
3. Personal guidance (including social, emotional, and leisure-time guidance).
4. Health guidance.
5. Economic guidance.

"Since these services necessarily overlap, the counselor should consider himself a general guidance counselor. He cannot be an educational counselor without at the same time acting as a vocational and personal counselor."

Dr. Pickens E. Harris, Professor of Philosophy at the University of Pittsburgh, in his book, *Philosophical Foundations of Education,* has this to say about guidance: "If some of our guidance enthusiasts today had a bit more of the temper of studying the psychology of the child and perhaps a bit less of the disposition to discover and employ quick 'guidance techniques', their guidance would doubtless be far more real and helpful. Children should be spared the ridiculous experience of being subjected to a separate period in the school day, once or twice a week, on 'guidance'. Many children think of guidance as a new subject.

"We may deplore the unfortunate academic teaching that has produced separate guidance programs, but it is regrettable that efforts to help children see the connection between their 'book learning' and their own personal needs should so quickly become settled into a formalism. It is just too bad that many of our teachers have allowed their subjects to become so crystallized that they do not see them as means of initiating the child into community life in all of its ramifications. If teachers realized, as they should, that a subject is not a subject but a mode of solving one's personal and social problems, then the anomalous situation of a new subject designed for this purpose could not have come about. Indeed, if this insight prevailed generally, we should probably have fewer subjects than we now have, but they would be richer and more meaningful and helpful to the children in all of their adjustment, personal, social, occupational, and all the rest. It is this line of thought which impels toward the integrated curriculum and away from the extreme analytic approach of the past. But it requires better teachers.

"We thus have no one to blame but ourselves for the continued brick-and-mortar piling up of new and different areas of materials to which children are subjected. It is to be hoped that we shall so quickly catch up with children's real needs in connection with present school 'offerings' that the curriculum may not become any more of a patchwork affair than it is now. Thus a fundamental part of guidance is in building power to think, which, un-

fortunately or fortunately, cannot be done apart from actual situations requiring adjustment."

Whether the reader agrees with these ideas, one or the other, or both, does not make a great deal of difference, especially if he or she is a physical education teacher. It is very important as physical educators to understand the great opportunities in social guidance work, particularly in social, leisure-time, and health problems.

Social Guidance. It seems that all of physical education is directly or indirectly connected with the social side of a student. A student can be helped by teaching him recreational games so that he will be able to enjoy present associations with fellow students in the give and take of competition. The organization of a class into squads with a leader for each squad is an aid to the leader in that he gains valuable training in helping and handling his fellow students. The squad benefits from this organization by learning cooperation and mutual sympathy for the lack of abilities of the various members. Presently there develops a real interest in a member's lack of ability and a desire to help that member improve in whatever he is doing.

There are many possibilities in helping boys who are not willing to play or do things according to the rules. An example would be setting up a modified game situation such as basketball, playing "five on five" on one end of the floor. Put two boys who like to play or do things to suit themselves with three conforming boys. Give them the rules and point out the fundamentals to be stressed and then let them work against a similar group, having the boys find that they are in the minority and that they can enjoy what they are doing just as much doing the right thing, supervision of that group becomes a matter of correcting faulty execution of fundamentals and innovation of new ideas. Another method is to give such boys the responsibilities and it is a very useful method of teaching boys social standards in school and out. The writer believes that teaching of rules of any activity should precede the activity, thus lessening the chances of any boy to use excuses of not knowing the rules. It is very encouraging to have eighteen intramural basketball teams and not be responsible for any of the officiating, timing, score keeping and the many other duties connected with the program. The work is all volunteered by students, and in most cases, it is performed with greater sincerity and ability than if outside officials were used. It seems that a good program is invaluable in developing social attitudes and redirecting boys "out of line" into a full realization of the advantages in doing things right. Such a program, however, would have to be based on the idea that each boy realizes his responsibilities toward the program's success and partakes in the activities due to a natural desire rather than just to please the teacher. The place of the instructor in such a program is in the background, directing and picking out the boys who need direction. It seems that too much of the opposite kind of teaching is prevalent, that of ignoring any student who causes trouble and working with the boys who have natural ability to begin with. Here is a well known fact that some boys will never learn the game of basketball, yet they are subjected to the same routine as the better players. It would be much better to assign less difficult work to the poorer groups or better yet, give them work in an entirely different sport. They would be much happier and could benefit from it at the same time.

Coeducational. Another very important part of the physical education program is the coeducational phase of it. The lower grades have always been coeducational to a great degree, but not so with the upper grades beginning with the junior high school level. This sudden break seems to be unjustifiable in that it is possible to develop an adequate coeducational program for all grades. The program for the junior high school level could include rhythmic games, marching, such as the grand march, folk dances and many other enjoyable activities. The program for the senior high school level could be built around the recreational activities such as volley-ball, deck tennis, badminton, shuffleboard, table tennis, tennis, golf, archery and others.

Leisure-time Guidance. It seems that with the great amount of leisure time in store for the future generations the emphasis on leisure time activities in physical education programs should be the core and that all other activities should be supplemental. No person will enjoy any activity until abilities are developed in it. The place to develop interest in these games is in the class period. A further development of interest is insured in a good intramural program. It is the duty of every teacher to teach the rules and fundamentals of as many recreational sports as time and facilities permit.

Health Guidance. This phase of the program is of greatest importance. Take as an example the general routine of a class. Clean towels can be provided or the student should be checked by the squad leader as to the change of towels if he has to provide his own. Soap should be used for each shower. Clothing should be kept clean at all times. When the school provides for these facilities, the personal cleanliness during the class period becomes a small problem. When the student furnishes his own necessities, it becomes an extra duty for squad leaders to check on the members of his squad. Where the students have class periods every day of the week, at least two periods should be devoted to instruction in health. The application of what is learned in the health classes can easily be practiced in the physical education period.

A corrective program is a good method in developing interest on the part of the student in his present and future health. If you are alone in such

a program, periodic inspection with follow-up work on the individuals will create interest. The application of group games for correction purposes will be of great help if no time is available to do individual work. A school wide posture campaign serves as a unique method for awakening students as well as faculty members to the importance of posture and health. The ability to diagnose severe cases of bad deformities and persuading the parents to have a specialist, or orthopedist connected with a charitable institution or otherwise, work with the child, is indeed a guidance gesture. The institution of a preventative program such as yearly vaccinations of students for all communicable diseases, and in schools where there isn't a nurse or health doctor, the logical person for heading up such a program is the physical education teacher as he has a better training for such duties than any of the academic teachers.

Health examinations are as important to the child as anything given in the program. A clear picture of a student's present and past medical condition makes for better teaching and a more sympathetic attitude of a student's problems. Not only is the teacher protected if anything happens to the child, but the child can be aware of his own weakness and strive to correct it. Yearly examinations with periodic check-ups can help a student and teacher considerably toward a fuller understanding of each others problems.

From medical examinations we are able to classify students as to the type or types of activities they should have. Here again we are able to help the child more than any other department of school in that our program is more elastic. It is possible to have a program for crippled students, for those who have bad hearts and for those who can take part in all of it.

Periodic weighing and measuring of height of students is an interesting way of getting students interested in health problems. After each measurement, the student can be reminded that a loss of weight and increase in height is natural within certain limits, but that a loss of weight with no increase in height or a considerable loss of weight under any condition of growth must be taken seriously. Such methods always bring forth many intelligent and beneficial questions from students.

In conclusion, you "learn by doing" in physical education. This is an advantage which many departments in the school do not have. It has been attempted to relate the possibilities in guidance that a good physical education program can contribute. It must be understood that before any of these possibilities can become a reality, there must be a genuine understanding of the role of the teacher in guiding the student toward a fuller realization of what social growth really is.

STUDENT (PRACTICE) TEACHING IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

(The Plan in Operation at the State College, San Jose, Calif.)

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Student Teaching a Vital Factor in the Training of Physical Education Teachers

Student teaching, practice teaching, cadet teaching, or directed teaching are all terms used to denote this important phase of the student's training for the teaching profession. The term "student teaching" is used at San Jose State College because it is felt that the student is not practicing on the pupils in the school, but that he is learning, as a student, the actual teaching activities involved in the physical education program.

This teaching that the student does is very vital to his training for the profession. Approximately three and a half to four years are spent in learning the theories, course content, etc., necessary for teaching, but not until this opportunity of student teaching are students faced with the problems which arise in actual working situations. For this reason a great deal of emphasis must be put upon this factor of teacher training.

San Jose State College has evolved from a normal school, and still retains as its primary function the training of teachers for the public schools of the State. Teachers are trained for service in kindergarten, elementary, and junior high schools, and for service in special subject divisions of the high school. Student teaching has always been one of the important factors in the student's training. At one time a regular training school was conducted in conjunction with the college, in which all students did their teaching under close supervision.

At present, the student teacher is placed in the public schools under the joint supervision of college supervisors and the resident teacher. The normal amount of student teaching now required of the general elementary major, is one-quarter, one-half of which is in the rural and one-half in the city schools.

General Plan Since 1935

An instructor in the physical education department is responsible for student teaching in physical education, taking care of the placement of students, supervision, rating and grading. He works in cooperation with the public school director under whom the student is placed.

Prior to 1935, student teaching in physical education was done on a part time basis. Anywhere from one to three periods were taught at a time, which necessitated the student doing his work near the college, and also, rushing back and forth to the school. This proved disadvantageous in a number of ways. Perhaps the chief difficulty was that student teachers could not become well acquainted with the pupils and the teachers of the school, and were not able to follow through the problems of the individual students.

In the fall of 1935 a policy was instituted wherein all majors in physical education were to do student teaching on a full time basis. That is, they were to spend twelve weeks, or a full quarter, away from the college, under the direct supervision of the director of physical education in the school. For this work they receive a total of 15 quarter units credit.

At first this full time student teaching made it difficult to arrange the programs of the upper class students. Those who had difficulty were allowed to do part-time student teaching; however, the programs of the underclassmen were so arranged that when they were ready for student teaching they could do it on a full-time basis. It is now a definite requirement, and there is no alternative.

Preparation for Student Teaching

Besides the regular professional and activity courses that the student majoring in physical education takes, there are two courses, required of each student, which have a direct bearing upon later student teaching. The first is called "Tutoring", which consists of assisting the instructor in one of the activity classes. Tutoring must be done for one year, or three-quarters, and begins in the third quarter of the student's sophomore year. This affords the major in physical education experience in class routine and in helping with the actual instruction of the activity.

"Observation and Participation," the second requirement, is taken preferably the quarter before student teaching is done. It cannot be taken more than two quarters before, as it should be associated closely with that work. This course consists of observing classes in five different schools, each for a period of two weeks. Approximately four hours per week are spent at each school and reports are turned in, covering the number in the class, the system of roll call, classification within the class, and procedure in teaching the activities. These schools for observation are selected by the Director of Student Teaching and include both junior and senior high schools. The instructors of physical education in the schools are very cooperative and welcome the opportunities of giving information to the students. Two quarter units of credit is given for this course.

Selection of Schools for Placement

A number of factors are taken into consideration in selecting the schools in which the students do their teaching. First, of course, the Principal of the school and the Director of Physical Education must be heartily in favor of having a student teacher, which is usually the case. Only schools are selected which have fair facilities and a somewhat adequate program, for after all, the student is merely learning, and there must be something for him to learn. Another element that must be given thought is the distance from the college. Ordinarily schools are not selected unless they are near enough to the college for the supervisor to visit them at least three times during the twelve week period. Some exceptions are made to this where it appears that there is a possibility of a position being available. This is the primary purpose of teacher training and if the student teacher can do well in his preliminary work at the school, the chances of his being placed there are greatly improved. Satisfactory student teaching has resulted directly in a number of placements.

During the five years from the fall of 1935 to the spring of 1940, approximately twenty schools have been used for student teaching purposes. Many of these, however, receive teachers more than one-quarter, as the number of majors assigned to student teaching ranges from five to nine or ten each quarter.

Relation of Student Teacher to the School in Which He is Placed

One of the purposes of student teaching is to get the individual away from the college surroundings and to make him feel that he is a teacher in every sense of the word. To conduct himself properly, wear the correct clothes, cooperate with other teachers; in other words, to become an actual member of the faculty in every respect is the desired goal.

The student teacher is responsible directly to the principal of the school and to the director of physical education within that school during the twelve weeks of teaching. He is expected to attend faculty meetings and, whenever possible, to participate in community affairs. This is an essential part of

his training, and although twelve weeks is a short period of time, a great deal can be accomplished along this line.

One important factor that the student teacher must not forget, is that he has to conform to the policies of the school in which he is placed. Although there may be many practices with which he does not agree, he is there to further his training for teaching and to get the practical experience that is offered.

The use of good English is another essential factor, and one that a prospective teacher in physical education is sometimes apt to forget. In handling pupils in the various sports on the athletic field and in the gymnasium it is easy to get in the habit of using slang expressions. A good teacher of physical education, and one that is to be admired and respected by the boys uses good English and has a pleasing tone of voice.

Supervision of Student Teachers

As was stated previously, the student is observed at least three or four times by the college supervisor. Certain elements are noted, such as roll call procedure, giving instructions, knowledge of the activity or activities, personal appearance of the student teacher, body carriage, voice, etc. These factors are discussed with the student who may thereby profit by the experience. These visits by the supervisor usually are not made known to the student as a more representative and better piece of work shall be seen.

The director of physical education under whom the prospective teacher is placed is in a position to supervise more closely the work being done. How well the student teacher becomes adapted to the situation, the reaction of the pupils to him, and other matters of importance are observed, and the necessary adjustments suggested. It is surprising how soon a student teacher is sized up by the pupils. He is either a "good egg", a "swell guy", a "poor sport", or some other more or less appropriate term as far as they are concerned, and what they think goes a long way in determining the success or failure of the future teacher.

The principal of the school and members of the education department of the college may observe the student teacher's work at various times. In fact, the more people who observe and constructively criticize the work, the more the student teacher will benefit.

Lesson Plans

Lesson plans are required of every student teacher in physical education at San Jose and are planned for two weeks in advance. This probably shall be thought a waste of time by some readers, as they will say that it is impossible to plan ahead for a physical education class, and should such a procedure be possible, is it necessary? At San Jose it is felt that planning ahead is possible and absolutely essential to a good program of physical education, if it is to meet the needs of the individuals.

Many advantages may be attributed to the planning ahead for the physical education program, and although it is not possible to carry out these plans word for word, it gives the student teacher an idea of what is being accomplished. Every instructor should have a general plan of what he hopes to accomplish during the year also, the aims and objectives of the program. He then may see just how well his program is meeting these objectives. It is a splendid opportunity for the student teacher to form the habit of pre-planning the activities for the classes, even though it may not be possible to follow these plans too closely.

At the beginning of the quarter a general plan is made of the activities that are to be covered during the twelve weeks and the general procedure in which they shall be taught. Then plans are made for the next two weeks, and for each succeeding two weeks until the end of the quarter. A plan is made out for each period of the day, and covers such items as roll call, classification or segregation, size of class, activity or activities to be given, and particularly the procedure of those activities. In certain routine matters the class will be conducted in a similar manner throughout the quarter, and where such is the case, duplication of plans is not necessary. A great deal of stress is laid upon the procedure of the activities and whether it be basketbell, baseball, volleyball or any other activity the method of teaching is important.

Conferences

One disadvantage in full-time student teaching is that with students away from the college it is impossible to have group conferences. These conferences add a great deal to the benefits from the work as the students are able to discuss problems that arise in their particular school. The advantages are far greater, however, than this disadvantage. If it is at all possible at least one of these group conferences is held about the middle of the quarter, and another at the end.

Individual conferences are held with the student teacher at each visit of the supervisor and again at the end of the quarter. At this final conference the student's work for the quarter is discussed and different problems that have arisen during the period of teaching may be taken up. This conference is valuable to the student as it affords him the opportunity of going over the work presented during the twelve weeks of teaching, pointing out the different mistakes that have been made, and making a general appraisal of the work.

Rating of the Student Teacher

If student teaching is to be valuable then certain objectives to be attained by it should be made, and these in turn rated in order to note the progress of the student. At San Jose, three

general objectives are strived for, namely: Improvement of teaching skill, improvement in personal qualities, and cooperation. Under each of these are listed factors which are rated on a seven point scale, ranging from "very superior" down to "very poor".

Ratings are made by the director under whom the student works, the principal of the school, the college supervisor, and any others who have observed directly the teaching of the student. These ratings are all taken into consideration by the supervisor, with the most weight given to that of the director as he is the one more closely associated with the student, and the final grade awarded. The Men's Physical Education Department at San Jose State follows the policy of the Education Department, which is in charge of all student teaching, in that the grade is either a plus or minus.

The Brown Rating Profile [1] prepared by Margaret C. Brown of Panzer College of Physical Education and Hygiene in New Jersey should be observed by those interested in Student Teaching in Physical Education. Miss Brown considers the elements of personality and professional equipment as the factors of importance in student teaching. Under Personality she lists four objectives, with subheadings under each, as follows:

A. The development of desirable personal qualities.

B. Growth in essential social qualities.

C. Improvement in use of voice.

D. Improvement in use of English.

Under Professional Equipment the following objectives are listed:

E. Improvement in knowledge and organization of subject matter.

F. Growth in mastery of teaching and learning processes.

G. The development of organizing and managerial ability.

H. Pupil growth and achievement.

I. The growth of professional attitudes and interests.

[1] Margaret C. Brown, *The Brown Rating Profile for Student Teachers and Teachers of Physical Education*, Edwards Brothers, Inc., Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1938.

The student is rated on each factor and the grade awarded on the basis of A (Excellent), B (Good), C (Average), D (Poor), F (Failure). A profile is then made showing the student's rating in all of these factors. It seems to be a rather complete rating system.

Record of Student Teaching

A complete record of each student's teaching is kept on file in the Men's Physical Education Department, showing the placement, grade, type of work done, units completed (all are now full-time or 15 quarter units), and a summary of the caliber of work done. A report of all student teachers in physical education is sent to the Education Department at the completion of each quarter. This report is kept in the regular folder for the Physical Education Majors, and is an important factor in recommending the individual for a teaching position.

It is surprising to notice how the student changes in his attitude toward physical education as a profession when he has been on the job as a student teacher for a few weeks. He becomes more careful of his dress, he learns how to work with and cooperate with others in the field, and he realizes that he has a certain responsibility in the teaching of activities to boys. There is not only the responsibility of teaching activities, but he realizes that he is a model after which the students will pattern, and begins to conduct himself accordingly.

General Summary

After five years of working on student teaching on a full-time basis the conclusion has been reached that it is the only way. The old part-time method was unsatisfactory from the student's standpoint in that the training and experience received was very limited. The student was really a hindrance to the school in which he was placed rather than a help in teaching the individual pupils, as the pupils did not become acquainted with him, and consequently, he could not command their respect.

Difficulties arise in arranging each student's program so that one quarter can be set aside for student teaching. However, where this is planned for when the student enters school, these difficulties are eliminated. Let it be said that this method of student teaching is far superior to the old part-time method.

DEMOCRACY AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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In America we think of our schools as symbolizing democracy. When Thomas Jefferson proclaimed education for all, he inferred the right to be educated in and for a democracy.

Our public schools attest the equality of education—the principle advocated by Jefferson. Just as adequately, trained boys and girls for democracy is indicated as our aim in the origin of White House Conferences on Children. It has been necessary to study this choice of ours, make plans, and consider educative life in terms of real needs.

In brief, we must go back to Jefferson's highway and travel along the road which leads to worthy citizenship. We must watch for the signs along the way—security, health, citizenship, and satisfaction out of living. In returning, we must get our direction, and again we turn to our schools for information and guidance. Youth must have practice in democratic living if they are to absorb its philosophy.

No age is free of problems. In the light of our own tremendous change as well as that of our neighbors, it is only natural that a need should arise to train in and for democracy.

The machine age has contributed a serious problem—industrialism.

From a country of rural dwellers we have become a divided populace. We have changed from the farm to the city; from the out of doors to the indoors; from sections of land to city blocks, from the horse and buggy to the automobile; from the smoke-house to the corner grocery; from the pleasure of a task well done to monotonous chores and idleness; and from a simple way of living to a complex one.

We are daily confronted with the issues of a moving, changing world.

Youth has suffered much. Gone is the opportunity of work for all, responsibility in the home for each member. Vigorous home-tasks are no more. Sharing tasks is synthetic. There is so little to be done. Where work was once compulsory it is now scarce, and the child competes with the adult in finding a task to not only pass the hours but to provide security.

LEISURE has been born. Every man has free time. From the child to the adult we are confronted with what to do to fill the hours. Thus, we have become a nation where living is so simple that it is complex. Youth and adult alike must be trained for the new life. Democracy, if it continues, must be the integrating factor, and its medium, the school—the leisure hours. Both afford a time, performance. What we would have, we must make, and through the doing we will learn.

The curriculum of the three R's has given way to a more extensive one, one which more nearly meets the need of education of rich living in a country of hours of leisure.

We not only study the history of our ancestors, but we equip our youth to live joyously and purposefully today. Music, arts and crafts, and physical education are activities more recently added to the growing curriculum.

If we are to educate boys and girls to live in a democracy, there is no better way than by allowing them to live democratically. Just as true, there is no better medium for this opportunity than in the school. The home—the school, and even those agencies outside the above mentioned, must join in promoting a democratic process for a democracy. No subject on the whole curriculum is better adapted to democratic procedure than physical education.

Physical education includes the games, major and minor sports, combative activities, tumbling, rhythm, and corrective work. Dr. Frank S. Lloyd points out that the concept of the function of the institution will also affect the choice of activities in physical education. If the function of physical education in the school be solely "body-building," then the program of activities and procedure may differ from that in an institution where physical education is considered to be a fundamental educational opportunity for personality development. If the function of the school is to produce soldierly, externally clean individuals, physical education activities of group-play type are mis-fits.

In a democratic process there is no place for physical education solely as a body-builder—as a means of developing strong bodies for an army. It is the task of physical education as a democratic process to fit the individual in such a way that he can live richer and more purposefully in a democracy.

Physical education has an innate appeal to every individual. To the child and youth, physical education is real life. Not only is it a means of developing organic power, but in the nature of the activity, it is a society in miniature—a means of democratic living.

The set-up is democracy in action. The opportunity for physical education is extended to all, within the reach of all—an axiom of democracy. The program is so extensive as to include activities which meet the need of youth and at the same time lay a basis for adult recreational skills. Recreational behavior is a function of the environment and as such is conditioned by the environment. It is a community permeated with democracy, there is consideration and provision for the leisure hours of its inhabitants. The democratic process dictates an opportunity for every citizen, and involves facilities and supervision.

Physical education and the related field of recreation are democratic processes because they are "doing" processes and involve ideas, feelings, and thought expressed in motion. Only by doing can the individual learn—recognize his status by knowing himself in relation to the group, enjoy individual rights as a member of a group, appreciate the benefits of group-action, and assume the responsibility of group membership.

In addition, physical education is democracy in action because it affords group procedure with adequate leadership—leadership which is conferred—which guides, never dictates. As Dr. Shailer Upton Lawton points out, psychologically, the physical director exerts a powerful influence over the mind of the growing child. If he or she is competent and skillful, any teacher of physical education can build about himself a certain qualitative leadership which cannot fail to profoundly influence the uninformed and groping mind of a normal child. Leadership is an imperative prerogative to the democratic process.

Physical education activities, according to Dr. Jay B. Nash, represent an expression of the individual's hereditary wants and thus with proper leadership standards of behavior may be built by and through this phase of education.

The activity program of physical education offers choice, choice which is guided. Certain fundamentals are necessarily taught all, but even then, individual differences are taken into account. Let us illustrate the point by considering the game of basketball. In a physical education class, all members would be taught the fundamentals of playing the game. Those students of unusual ability would probably be elected to assist the instructor or "captain" the teams. Initiative is developed. The students are anxious for action; to wait for the instructor to organize the teams, prepare the court for the game, would mean delay. Because the students are anxious to play, they "go ahead" with routine procedures—assist in getting the court ready; choose their teams, and other duties that must be attended.

Those individuals who like being in the social situation of the game but are not physically able to participate are given an opportunity to do so. They become score-keepers, "timers." Thus, the game of basketball in a physical education class in function, approximates the situation of community life. There is planning, settling of problems prior to working together, choosing leaders who will lead the group toward their goal; thoughtful consideration of the rights of the individual, especially those who deviate from the so-called "normal." The instructor, as a person expertly qualified in guidance, offers leadership to the group—leadership which instructs and guides the youth in their choices.

The nature of the activities in physical education allows for creativeness in the individual. Activities range from simple to complex in organization, from the low organically and high interpretively to the high organically and low interpretively and include those activities high both organically and interpretively. A physical education program is one balanced in activities; it includes all of the above classification.

There is no set way; rules are made or modified to suit the group. Conformity to one set of rules occurs when a group desires to play with another group, and even then, the group interprets its own rules.

Games in physical education are rich in interpretation, opportunity for developing leadership, cooperation, and instilling loyalty. All these in addition to ability to develop organic power. Physical education has in its power, within its scope, the democratic process. Also, it can contribute to the development of adequate leaders for a democracy.

The democratic process rests upon the willingness of the people for such a way of living. Such an attitude can be developed only through doing; its value realized only after experimentation—physical education is concerned with this phase, the doing process; ultimately, the democratic way—by a democratic process. Democracy rests upon the willingness of the people for such a way of living. Just as important, is the unity of a healthy people toward such a cause.

Health, which is an outcome of physical education, is defined as the ability to sustain adaptive effort, and as such, is vital in maintaining democracy. Not only the strength to fight off those who would attack our way of living, but the vigor and will to maintain the democratic process as a better means of enjoying life. Vigorous physical education activities in the absence of strain and drains give organic health.

Dr. Nash says that physical education activities represent a cross-section of activities—human responses in the field of biological adjustments which emphasize the use of the fundamental basic muscle-nerve groups as expressed primarily in the dramatization of old racial struggle patterns of man in him attempt to express himself and control the environment of which he is a part. Does this not indicate that physical education strikes at the heart of the democratic process?

VOLLEYING ALONG WITH VOLLEY BALL

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It is interesting to note the progress of the game of Volley Ball. Invented in the year 1895 by Mr. William Morgan, the Physical Director of the Holyoke, Mass., Y. M. C. A., who, in search for a game which was not as strenuous as basketball, fell upon the idea of batting a ball across a tennis net. From this simple beginning the game has now developed to the point where men will travel across the country to participate in an Open National Championship. Once a game played only in Y. M. C. A.'s, we now find it being played in most nations of the world; in the schools and colleges; in the parks and playgrounds; in fact, if you are a student of the game you will find that slowly but surely it is gaining in rank among the favorite games of the American People.

During the year 1940 there were two occasions where I had a chance to note the rapid development of the game. The first was during the National Championships, which were held in May, in the City of Philadelphia. Two tournaments were held; the first one being called the Veterans' Tournament. It was for Y. M. C. A. teams, made up of members who were thirty-five years of age and over. The type of play demonstrated by these men was vigorous, strenuous, and exciting. It was not so many years ago that the best teams in the country were made up of men of these ages. But today the play has become so fast that now these men have to organize a tournament of their own, due to the fact that younger men have come in and are taking their places on the average Class "A" team in the United States. This leads to a pertinent observation; that young men are taking the game seriously. It was not so many years ago that most young fellows would look the game over and give it the ha, ha, and class it as an "old man's game." But such is not the case today, for when the game is really played in earnest it becomes one of the major games of our day. The Open National Tournament won by the Los Angeles Athletic Club of Los Angeles, California, was an example of this. Over twenty of the best teams in the United States participated in this double elimination tournament for two days. The play was so fast that it kept the officials and spectators on edge most of the time.

The greatest development in the game, as I see it, is the use of the block. For many years there has been a great question as to whether it was wise to block or not; in fact, in the text on the game, the author states that "it is advisable to block only when the play is in the center position and the ball is close to the net." One trip to any first class match will relegate this advice to the back woods; for instead of blocking only in the center, the defense blocks in every position across the net and with two men. If the rules would permit, I'm sure that they would use three. The block is so effective at the present time when used as a defensive measure that the spiker has to play the ball three or four times before he is able to drive it through or by the block. The other members of the team form a perfect defense around the block so that when the ball is blocked they are in position for immediate recovery. Some of the net play on the retrieving of the ball was miraculous; e. g., two men would go up to block, one would block the ball into the net, his partner who blocked with him would recover the ball passing it up for the attack to hit back. The objective of much of the blocking was not to drive the ball back to the other side but to send it up in the air on the blocker's side of the net so that his team could recover the ball and make it an offensive play rather than returning it to the opposition and going on the defense again.

At the present time not much is known about the block in terms of techniques. Several coaches in the country are working on this style of play and it will not be long until one of them comes along with suggestions on how to block. The best teams and coaches in the country will experiment on various methods of blocking to see which will pay the greatest dividends.

Another development was the increased efficiency of the defense. The day has gone by when a hard driven spike or an attack is a sure point, for now-a-days the defense is after every ball and many of them are saved next to the floor; that is, the men are able to get under most of them.

When the ball is served the front line men on the defense are playing much farther back from the net than they used to. Most teams are using the safe serve rather than trying to make it difficult to handle. I still feel that the development of the serve can be a real asset to a well-trained team. Of course, no coach will put up with the server who tries to ace every serve that he attempts. However, it is like the tennis serve which is a terror to the opposition when it is going well. A good serve comes along only after many sessions of consistent practice.

Most of the teams handle the ball in a clear-cut manner and there is not so much of the "sticky-finger" play. The rules call for a clearly batted

ball, and every coach should train his players in the techniques of handling the ball in an efficient and proper manner.

Next to the National tournament, the meeting of the United States Volley Ball Association was the next big event in the Volley Ball calendar. This Association controls the activities of this sport and makes the rules. Dr. George Fisher, of the Boy Scouts of America, has been the President of this organization since its inception many years ago. He has given it a forceful and intelligent leadership. All of the athletic and recreation organizations of the country are members of this body and together they have kept the game on the march. It was encouraging to note the progress that the game was making in the recreation and school programs of the country. Practically every school and recreation agency was using this game as an important part of their program. With the coming of the Defense Program of the United States undoubtedly the game will be a favorite among soldiers.

The United States Volley Ball Association has as one of its functions the preparation of materials for the Volley Ball Guide, which is published by the American Sports Publishing Company. Dr. Fisher is the editor. From year to year this Guide has been a source of valuable material for those who are interested in the game, and if the reader of this article is not familiar with the Volley Ball Guide then it would be well to immediately secure as many back copies as possible, for within its covers one will find many suggestions for the improvement of play, morale, etc.

Besides this emphasis on the intensive highly competitive play, there is also another side to volley ball which is as important. It is the game which is played by those who are seeking a good time, who want to have a lot of fun, want to yell and holler, want to kid the other players. This is the game for just that, and this is one reason why the game remains so popular, for you can play it year after year and still have a swell time. Boys and girls play it with modified rules. Some places lower the net and even let the ball bounce; some play "doubles"; some play with mixed volley ball teams. It is a great game for all, and the followers of the game may be encouraged in its growth in popularity.

SOME HELPFUL HINTS IN THE ORGANIZATION OF A GYMNASTICS TEAM

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Numerous letters have been received requesting information concerning the organization of gymnastics clubs and teams in both high schools and colleges. The sudden interest is significant in that it points to the beginning of a tremendous advance in our physical education and athletic program.

Gymnastics has always been recognized as one of the great body-building activities. Now it is making its contributions in developing courage and strength in our American youth in preparation for national defense. The sport has been slighted in the past decade and pushed aside for the more recreational activities such as shuffle-board, table tennis, and badminton. Now, however, we have finally come to the realization that the muscles of the upper body including the arms and shoulders have not been stressed enough. The renewed interest in gymnastics may also be attributed to the increased interest in apparatus work among colleges. This sport had its beginning in Turn Vereins, Sokols and Y. M. C. A.'s, and it has slowly entered our public school systems. The slow progress has been due essentially to the lack of inspiration among teachers. Now that more colleges are preparing men who have specialized in gymnastics and tumbling, better teaching and greater interest is bound to result.

The observations and suggestions which are mentioned in the following paragraphs have proved helpful in the organization and supervision of a gymnastics program in a state college. They are essentially meant for the instructor who is not too familiar with the sport but because of the expansion is asked to conduct such a program.

The hints are offered not in the spirit of authority but in the hope that they may make gymnastics teaching easier and more successful. It is well worth mentioning at this time that some of the very best high school gymnastics teams or clubs are coached by men who, though keenly interested and well-informed have themselves never been actively engaged in the sport.

Recommended Literature

For the beginning teacher it is recommended that a knowledge of the history and rules of the sport be obtained. The coach who is interested in helping boys can quickly pick up some of the rudiments involved by reading books on the subject; the following are recommended:

Gymnastic Handbook, published by the Amateur Athletic Union, 233 Broadway, New York City, N. Y.

Apparatus and Tumbling Exercises, by Leopold F. Zwarg, published by John J. McVey & Co., Philadelphia, Pa.

Tumbling Illustrated, by L. L. McClow, published by A. S. Barnes & Co., New York City, N. Y.

For interscholastic rules, consult the director of the high school athletic association in your state. National collegiate and Big Ten rules can be obtained from Mr. Dan Hoffer, gymnastics coach, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. Eastern intercollegiate rules are available at the Eastern League headquarters, Biltmore Hotel, New York City, N. Y.

Excellent articles on different phases of gymnastics have appeared and are published frequently in such nationally-known publications as:

Journal of Health and Physical Education, 311 Maynard St., Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Scholastic Coach, 220 East 42nd St., New York City, N. Y.

Athletic Journal, 6858 Glenwood Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

Amateur Athlete, 233 Broadway, New York City, N. Y.

An adequate knowledge of the history, events, rules and terminology is an auspicious step for a beginning coach.

Equipment

Not every high school gymnasium will be equipped with the necessary mats and apparatus for gym work; therefore, if a program is to be initiated new equipment must be purchased. Information on apparatus and mats may be had by writing to the following companies:

Fred Medart & Co., De Kalb St., St. Louis, Mo.

Narragansett Machine Co., Providence, R. I.

Petersen & Co., 5553 Baynton St., Philadelphia, Pa.

It may be necessary at first to begin work with a limited amount of equipment, then build up gradually, buying some new apparatus each year. When new materials are purchased it is important to be sure one is getting the new standard intercollegiate type and not some obsolete equipment.

The gymnastics coach is responsible for taking proper care of apparatus and mats and for seeing that any necessary repairs are made at once. Mats should be kept neatly on a mat truck when not in use. They should not be dragged over the floor.

Personal equipment consists of the usual gym suit with light sandals instead of heavy gym shoes. For competition long white serge trousers cut to fit the performers are preferred. A new type tumbling shoe, white, high top, and made of light canvas with a thin crepe rubber sole to prevent slipping is now on the market. Both tumbling shoes and apparatus sandals can be purchased from G. H. Heineman, Philadelphia Turners, Broad and Columbia, Philadelphia, Pa.

Squad Personnel

The make-up of a gymnastics squad can be determined by simple tests such as the rope climb test, in which the boys in required physical education classes are asked to climb the rope without the use of their legs; or by chinning tests or elementary tumbling and stunts tests. It is advisable to look for boys who are strong and who can control themselves easily, but ordinarily they should not weigh more than 160 pounds. Boys who are comparatively strong, light and short will usually develop into the best performers. If a few good boys can get started they will soon attract other boys to the sport. However, it is well to run simple tests for all boys whether they have shown a particular interest in gymnastics or not because it is quite likely that a few good possibilities will be uncovered thereby. Sometimes boys do not realize their potentialities until they have been tested, then they may become interested. The December issue of the 1938 RESEARCH QUARTERLY contains a brief and fairly reliable test for the determination of potential gymnastic ability.

An early start is probably the most essential factor involved in successful gymnastics. Coaches should try to interest a large number of boys of the junior high school age, then not feel discouraged if some of them drop out. It is safe to say that few if any outstanding gymnasts and tumblers began late in their youth to acquire this aptitude. At earlier ages boys will take punishment and defeat without discouragement, and they are not as awkward then.

Season's Objectives

The goals or objectives for a gymnastics season should be drawn up as early as possible to aid the coach and to set an aim for the boys. Better results will be obtained if definite goals are set, and if some sort of added stimulation is offered. For example, exhibitions can be held between halves of basketball games or other athletic contests in the gym; an annual physical education demonstration, or circus can be staged, featuring the gymnastics team. Scheduling as many meets between schools or teams as possible is a great motivation. A more informal type of competition which can be carried on daily is the use of the "objective chart" on which all the possible elementary and advanced skills for which the boys will work are listed according to degree of difficulty. As each skill is mastered the student checks it off. Thus each individual has a definite goal and can see at a glance his own progress in comparison with that of the other boys.

Practice Periods

When one starts to coach a group of boys it is obvious that elementary things should come first. Stay with the fundamentals until they are mastered. Practicing a skill once or twice is never sufficient for mastery. The more a trick is repeated, the more faith one has in himself and the better foundation for the more difficult tricks to follow. If a high school boy is correctly motivated, it should not be difficult to interest him in practicing a skill over and over again, especially when the elementary skills are worked into various routines. The frequency of work-outs will be determined in part by the goals agreed upon previously by the coach and his team.

Creating Interest

Publicity for both the team and individuals should be given careful consideration, since some recognition of the ability of the team and members on it serves as a stimulating factor toward better work. Both the town and school paper should be glad to cooperate in allowing gymnastics its due share of publicity, especially if the team and the coach make an effort to inject public appeal into the sport. Bulletin boards and posters placed in conspicuous places around the gymnasium also adds interest and stimulation. For variety some outstanding collegiate gymnasts could be invited to give an exhibition for the boys, or the boys could visit a college gymnastics meet and talk to the experienced performers following the meet. A great deal of interest can be created by showing movie reels before assemblies and other gatherings. In conclusion, it is worth considering this thought—a coach can expect about as much in return from his boys as they get from him.

DISTINGUISHING FACTORS OF DANISH GYMNASTICS OF NIELS BUKH

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Niels Bukh lays great stress upon the "primitive," because by primitive he means simple, limited, and fundamental or basic movements.

Bukh has taken the worth while material of the Swedish system that had been forgotten and that lay dormant during the years and has built from it Danish Gymnastics. He has taken the most simple and introductory movements of the Ling system. This is his first contribution.

Bukh's second contribution, and largest, lies in the fact that he has set up an entirely new teaching or working plan so as to gain the results in a few months that others do not achieve in years.

The chief characteristics of Bukh's work are that it is spirited work, that it gives much pleasure and satisfaction, and that full use of all the time is made. Not a minute's time is lost. There are no pauses between exercises. The change from one exercise over into another is made without a break or halt.

The Aims of Gymnastics in General

To give to the Physical condition of the young that fundamental improvement of which it may be in need.

To help the healthy growth and perfect development of youth.

To develop both mind and body.

To preserve the original perfection of the human form has always been an aim of athletics and gymnastics of all races.

The Aims of Danish Gymnastics

To give a thorough working and toning up of the whole body.

To clear the way of obstacles, to lay the foundations, and build upon them the basis of the normal physical condition.

To develop an upright, beautiful youth, with strength and power under control, directed by a will and energy to use these attributes in the service of right.

Since the body is made up of a bony framework, made movable by tendons, covered by muscles, and the whole activated by a nervous system, these three, the bones, muscles and nerves, must be dealt with in considering faults of posture. There are three main factors to be found in faulty upright carriage:

1. Stiffness—in the joints.
2. Lack of power—of the muscles.
3. Awkwardness—in movement.

The aim of the groundwork, directed in three corresponding groups, is to counteract the above three faults by

1. Increasing mobility.
2. Increasing strength.
3. Increasing agility.

The aim is to produce a carriage where 1, 2, and 3 are united to give expression to perfect grace.

The most important skeletal faults are:

1. The exaggerated condition of the normal curves.

2. The lack of mobility of the spinal column, especially in the convexities forward in the neck and lumbar regions, and backward in the thoracic region.

The above conditions arise in connection with weight distribution of the body, and also largely due to the influence of habitual and occupational postures at the time of greatest growth and development.

In fundamental gymnastics an attempt is made to take the useful movements of free athletics and collect them in a suitable form that one may attain skill, strength, and endurance.

For the sake of economy this has been arranged in such a way that the work may be participated in by large numbers simultaneously, in a limited space, without the need of much apparatus, under the leadership of one person.

Greek athletes derived value through the variety and vigor of movement. Fundamental gymnastics are emphatically motional or working gymnastics. They must be adapted to suit the physical condition of the class and be different for men, women, and children. But for all classes the work must be taken:

1. In a free and vigorous rhythm.

So that pleasure and warmth are derived.

These are the proper conditions for the change and development aimed at by which youth satisfies his need for beauty, freedom, and strength in carriage, thought, and character.

The work of Danish Gymnastics may be divided for the sake of convenience into:

1. Order Exercises.
2. Leg Exercises.
3. Arm Exercises.
4. Neck Exercises.
5. Lateral Exercises.
6. Abdominal Exercises.
7. Dorsal Exercises.
8. Marching and running exercises.
9. Vaulting and agility exercises.

Since in gymnastics, athletics, and daily life it is much more important for people to have good control and coordination in movement rather than in formal positions, it is natural and right to attempt to increase these powers during movement.

The different aims and effects of the movements are for MOBILITY, STRENGTH, and AGILITY. Thus the nine types of exercises above are subdivided under the three heads just mentioned.

It is a *mobility exercise* if it demands a wider range of flexion or extension of a joint or limb than that to which the part is subjected in requisites of daily life and labor.

It is a *strength exercise* if it calls for a greater contraction in the muscles.

It is an *agility exercise* if it makes ever-increasing demands upon the cooperation of the nerves and muscles.

Only that work which aims or leads to a definite goal is to be considered as valuable and rational. Work that does not contribute to mobility, strength, and agility does not belong to fundamental gymnastics.

To have a clear aim is important in most any kind of work, but especially so in gymnastics. A clear aim is not sufficient unto itself, it must be accompanied by energetic application.

In the lesson plan the two principles of Ling should be employed:

1. All-around exercise, i. e., exercise of the entire body.
2. Alternate increase and decrease in the intensity of the work.

The work in a lesson may be divided into three parts:

1. Exercises taken in a reclining position on the floor.
2. Exercises on the stall bars followed by marching.
3. Exercises in vaulting and tumbling.

The command is a necessary but not an important part of Bukh's gymnastics.

An important point is that the work, which contributes to rhythm, mobility, and strength, will realize its fullest purpose, namely, the development of agility, and that all parts of the muscular system that are not working be loose and relaxed and without contractions. Thus developing the ability also to relax and rest.

THE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF A PHYSICAL EDUCATION CURRICULUM AT THE SECONDARY LEVEL*

I. STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

A. This study represents the effort of a group of physical education teachers, who are actively engaged in the field, to outline what they consider to be an ideal situation from the standpoint of the physical plant and facilities, personnel problems, and program content; with the ultimate goal that these facilities and activities may make their maximum contribution to the educational and physical development of the individual.

B. For the purpose of the study certain arbitrary assumptions were necessary: Adjustments to local needs should be made.

1. Type of School—a three-year senior high school. For adaptation to the junior high school level the following modifications would be advisable:

   The size of the areas should be reduced approximately one-fourth in baseball, football, soccer, speedball, etc., basketball goals should be lowered to eight feet for the seventh and the eighth grades, and facilities for pole vaulting, high hurdles, etc., should not be provided. Interscholastic athletics should not be scheduled; therefore, the bleacher space and provisions for team dressing rooms and equipment could be greatly reduced.

2. Enrollment—two thousand pupils equally divided as to sex.

3. Place in general educational plan—The school plant and facilities should be made available to the entire community as an education and recreation center. The material presented, therefore, represents but one phase of a broad educational plan.

C. Standards for facilities and program content have been fairly well established during the past decade. Therefore, while some suggestions will be made, this committee is more concerned with the coordination of all facilities and activities in terms of pupil progress, rather than the creation of new standards or materials.

II. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

A. Inasmuch as the aims and objectives of physical education have been well stated by the leaders in the field, it is not the purpose of this committee to define new standards, but rather to indicate several points of emphasis.

B. Aim of Physical Education. We subscribe to the statement given by Bookwalter that "The aim of physical education is to develop through natural-total body activities, primarily on the play level, the physically, mentally and socially integrated individual."

C. Objectives of Physical Education

1. Classification
   a. Remote or on sociological level.
   b. Intermediate or on biological level.
   c. Immediate or on pedagogical level.

2. Our present concern is with those which are *immediate* in the divisions of:
   a. Physical Education
      1. To promote organic vigor through motor activities.
      2. To develop body skills and coordination in proportion to the years of maturity.
      3. To teach recreative skills so as to contribute to education in the worthy use of leisure.
      4. To aid each pupil in the development of those objectives which are primarily social in nature—i. e., enable us to live and work.
      5. To develop a knowledge and practice of safety precautions pertinent to physical activities.
   b. Health Instruction
      1. To educate the individual in ways to improve or conserve his health.
      2. To influence the conduct of any individual in matters of personal and community health so as to produce the greatest personal happiness and compatibility within the social group.
   c. Health Service
      1. To acquaint the individual with those conditions of personal welfare who may and do act as deterrents to complete mental and physical health.

* Report presented to the Curriculum Division of the Los Angeles City Schools by a committee composed of Junior and Senior High School men and women physical education teachers. Because of its length the second part of the report will be presented in the next issue of the Physical Educator.

2. To insure a school population physically and mentally fit and able to receive the instruction given.
3. To establish such standards that the environment of the school will protect and promote the health of the individuals concerned.

3. Necessary characteristics of immediate objectives for units of work.
   a. They should relate to activity of value in life.
   b. Those used in lessons should be specific.
   c. They should indicate pupil activity.
   d. They should be measurable.

D. Desired Results

Under the conditions stated it is believed that the following results may be achieved:

1. That organic vigor may be developed and maintained by means of appropriate and satisfying activities.
2. That interest may be stimulated in many desirable activities, not only for the present, but which will continue in adult life.
3. That a fundamental knowledge of health rules, attitudes and practices may be developed.
4. That by achievement of the above ideals that each individual will be able to satisfactorily adjust himself physically, mentally and socially to the stress and strains of modern life.

III. ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

A. Physical Plant and Facilities

1. General area of school site—a minimum of thirty acres, placement of buildings so as to leave large unbroken play areas.
2. Gymnasium Building (Boys)
   a. Exercise floors—2 (70′x100′x22′)—provide at least 4 more basketball goals on main floor and 8 more on auxiliary floor for practice shooting. Dancing allowed only on auxiliary floor.
   b. Bleachers — permanent with minimum capacity of 1,000 on main floor only.
   c. Apparatus room—45′x75′x20′.
   d. Kitchen—adjoining auxiliary floor. The social, recreational use of the gymnasium requires the inclusion of a kitchen or kitchenette.
   e. Class room—24′x50′—to be used for health education classes, talks by instructors to athletic teams, general announcements, registration or home-room classes; equipped with seating facilities, blackboard space, moving picture screen, etc.
   f. Individual activity (corrective) room —30′x40′x16′—with adequate storage space.
   g. Rest room—rest room for boys supplied with good quality cots—one for each 50 boys taking physical education during the maximum period load; convenient to instructors' offices and to be enclosed with ultra violet ray glass.
   h. Health unit rooms—this unit should include one or more rooms properly fitted for first-aid, physical examinations, personal health conferences, and by physicians, dentist and nurse.
   i. Instructors' offices. Individual cubicles with outer office for secretary, files, library.
   j. Supply room—with window opening to outside play areas.
   k. Store room.
   l. Dressing room. Area to be used for dressing purposes; large enough to provide free space (exclusive of lockers) equal to 12 square feet per pupil for the largest number dressing in any one class period.
   m. Extra dressing rooms—one with provisions for 60 lockers for competitive athletic teams. Second with same provisions to care for faculty members and visiting teams.
   n. Lockers — individual steel lockers, 12″x12″x72″ — 350 individual combination padlocks.
   o. Basket system similar to type employed at the University of Southern California.
   p. Shower room—25 shower heads and adjacent drying rooms.
   q. Sanitary fixtures.
   r. Recreation room or lounge—equipped for reading, quiet games, such as checkers, chess, caroms, etc.
   s. Billiard room—adjacent to lounge. Two tables.
   t. Bowling alley—adjacent to lounge. Two alleys.

u. Handball and squash courts—4 units.
v. Badminton—4 units.
w. Rifle range—minimum of two targets.

3. Gymnasium Building (Girls)
   a. Exercise floor — 70′x100′x22′ — with provision for 6 basketball goals; enclosure for piano and bench; instruction platform (folding type); stall bars along one wall; unobstructed side wall for tennis practice; mirrors at one end.
   b. Dance studio — 50′x65′x18′ — with mirrors lining all walls and furnished with piano and bench; music file cabinet; and benches with storage facilities.
   c. Costume room (adjoining dance studio) 12′x15′ equipped with ironing board and electric outlet.
   d. Restricted activity and game room—40′x60′x18′—with bowling alley adjoining, equipped with mirrors and sufficient floor space for deck games and game tables.
   e. Class room—24′x50′—to be used for health education classes, talks by instructors to athletic teams, general announcements, registration or home-room classes; equipped with seating facilities, blackboard space, moving picture screen, etc.
   f. Rest room and sun deck—18′x30′x12′—equipped with cots complete.
   g. Dispensary equipped with scale and stadiometer, cots complete, supply cabinets, heat lamps, etc.
   h. Health unit rooms—this unit should include one or more rooms properly fitted for first-aid, physical examinations, personal health conferences, and by physician, dentist and nurse.
   i. Instructors' offices with outer office for secretary. Small private office for each instructor with adequate dressing room, shower and lavatory space.
   j. Club room with adjoining kitchenette equipped with fireplace, comfortable chairs, lounges.
   k. Dressing rooms (3′x4′) showers (3′x3′) and lavatories.
      1. 150 dressing rooms with shower between each two rooms. (Level of shower room slightly lower than dressing room floor.) Dressing rooms with wall and door enclosures of solid material up to 4′ 6″ height—upper portion made of heavy wire caging. (Top of room and shower enclosed with caging.)
      2. Adequate, well lighted and ventilated lavatories.
      3. 1,500 baskets and padlocks. (Baskets arranged for service as at University of Southern California.)
   l. Storage space
      1. Storeroom (with shelves from floor to ceiling).
      2. Supply room. (Situated so that it opens on to field for convenient issuance and return of supplies and equipment.)
      3. Suit and towel cage.

4. Natatorium—(Located between boys' and girls' gymnasium.) Pools to be enclosed. Acoustics to be good.
   a. Main pool—size 60′x75′. To be used for boys' instructional work, co-education and adult recreational swimming. Diving boards—2 low and 1 high. Lanes and distances for competitive swimming to be plainly marked. Goals for water polo. Permanent bleacher facilities for 500.
   b. Auxiliary pool—size 35′x70′. To be used for girls' instructional work. Lanes to be plainly marked. Diving boards—2 low and 1 high. Bleachers for 200.
   c. Personal equipment—hair dryers, etc.
      1. Suits and towels to be furnished by School District.
      2. Public must use suits and towels provided upon payment of small service fee.

5. Laundry, Cleaning and Repairs.
   a. Plant to be established on campus to care for all towels, gym suits, bathing suits, athletic equipment, mat covers, etc., as well as cafeteria linen and other school laundry. Plant to have all necessary equipment for cleaning, washing, drying.
   b. Frequency of cleaning.
      1. Towels—after use.
      2. Gym suits—once per week.
      3. Gym and atheltic socks or hose—at least once per week.
      4. Bathing suits—after use.
      5. Athletic jerseys—at least once per week.
      6. Mat covers—as needed.

c. Cleaning and repairs.
1. Balls to be subject to constant inspection and repairs by supply custodian.
2. Athletic equipment — football pants, helmets, etc., to be cleaned and repaired as necessary during season, and to be stored in a clean, usable condition at close of activity.

6. Outside Facilities (Boys').
a. Bleachers—seating capacity of 5,000.
1. Athletic dressing rooms.
a. Home teams—300—12"x12"x 72" lockers.
b. Visiting team—50 lockers.
2. Showers and lavatories.
3. Storage and supply facilities.
a. Supply room for daily use.
b. Store room for team equipment such as suits, etc.
c. Store room for field equipment such as hurdles, portable bleachers, tools, etc.
4. Drying room for suits.
5. Public lavatories.

b. Fields—one main field; one auxiliary field; one field primarily for hard baseball but which may be used for other activities as needed. All areas to be suitably landscaped, lighted for night activities and surrounded by an adequate fence. It is assumed that all fields, pits and courts will be equipped for initial use, i.e., baseball diamond, for both hard and soft ball, to have home and pitchers' plates and bases. Plenty of portable goals should be provided for temporary soccer and football areas, etc.
1. Football.
a. Main field—fronting bleachers.
b. Practice field — use auxiliary field.
2. Speedball—use auxiliary field.
3. Soccer—use baseball field.
4. Baseball field—to provide for two diamonds.
5. Playground baseball — provide at least 4 diamonds.
6. Track.
a. One-fourth mile around, main field 20′ width.
b. 220-yard straightaway 36′ width.
c. Provision for 440-yard race to be run around one turn with an auxiliary starting area (practice starts) as an extension of the "U" on the far side of field.
d. Fixed sprinklers for watering.
7. Pits—with pit covers.
a. Broad Jump—two of each on main field.
b. High Jump — practice area — provide four broad and 4 high.
c. Pole Vault—jump pits and 2 pole vault pits.
8. Shot Put—provide 3 rings, separated at least 30′ laterally; with suitable stop boards in an enclosed area.
9. Golf.
a. Driving cages—4 units.
b. Putting Green—50′x50′.
10. Archery Lanes—to be marked off by safety flags and ropes as needed on some field not in use.
11. Javelin and Discus—these activities should be made available only when sufficient space is provided in an enclosed area (temporary fencing) and under the *direct supervision of an instructor.*
12. Rugby and Lacrosse — if desired may be installed on one of the three fields mentioned above.
13. Ice Hockey and other winter sports — where climatic conditions are favorable these facilities should be provided according to standard specifications.

c. Courts.
1. Tennis—4 units.
2. Basketball—4 units.
3. Handball—4 units.
4. Paddle Tennis—2 units.
5. Quoitennis—1 unit.
6. Volley Ball — 6 units.
7. Badminton—2 units.
8. Horseshoe—4 units.
9. Croquet— 1 unit.

7. Outside Facilities (Girls').
a. Fields.
1. 2 parallel fields for use of hockey, speedball, soccer, etc.
2. 4 Soft Ball Diamonds—lighted for night activity.

b. Courts.
   1. Tennis—4 units (adjacent to boys' unit).
   2. Volley Ball—6 units.
   3. Badminton—4 units.
   4. Paddle Tennis—2 units.
   5. Horseshoe—2 units.
   6. Basketball—6 units.

8. Supplies.
   a. For all physical education and recreational activities.
   b. First Aid.

9. Equipment.
   a. For all physical education and recreational activities.
   b. First Aid.

10. Individual personal equipment — all articles to be furnished by the Board of Education.
   a. Class equipment (Boys').
      1. Gym trunks—gray.
      2. Gym uppers—gray.
      3. Sweat shirt—gray.
      4. Socks.
      5. Supporter
      6. Rubber soled gym shoes, ankle height.
   b. Class equipment (Girls').
      1. Black shorts with white stripe on sides.
      2. White regulation middy.
      3. White gym socks.
      4. Rubber soled (white) gym shoes, ankle height.
   c. Athletic equipment.
      1. All items of uniform.
   d. Towels.
   e. Combination padlock.

B. Staff.
1. Classification.
   a. Full time—a minimum of 7 instructors for boys and 7 instructors for girls.
   b. Associate — all members of the academic staff unless specially exempted.
2. Training.
   A five year curriculum consisting of work in teacher training with a major in physical education.
3. Teaching day and load.
   a. Not over 5 one-hour periods of instruction with an average of 40 pupils per class and one hour for special duty or preparation.
   b. One hour to be allowed for lunch and rest.
4. Boys' Instructional Staff.
   a. Head—responsible for administration and supervision of department. Should not have over three instructional periods.
   b. Individual activity instructor (remedial work) one man to handle five sections with an average of 20 per class.
   c. Instructor and Intramural Director—One man to handle three class sections and two hours for coordination of intramural activities.
   Associate instructors may sponsor many of the actual activities.
   d. Instructors and athletic coaches — four men, each to handle three class sections and coach two hours.
5. Girls' Instructional Staff.
   a. Head—responsible for administration and supervision of department. Should not have over three instructional periods.
   b. Individual activity instructor (remedial work) one woman to handle five sections with an average of 20 per class.
   c. Instructor and Playground Director —One woman to handle three class sections and two hours for coordination of playground activities.
   Associate instructors may sponsor many of the actual activities.
   d. Instructors and Club Sponsors— 4 women, each to handle four class sections and one hour of club activities.
6. Health Service and Instruction Staff.
   a. Health Coordinator.
   b. Physician (man) full time; (Woman two days per week).
   These physicians in addition to having a medical degree should have training in education. Their duties should be the conducting of physical examinations; teaching personal hygiene; and supervising the condition of athletes.
   c. Nurses—two—full time.
   Must be registered nurse and duties would be to assist physician; be re-

sponsible for all first-aid work; and one-half time of each day to be spent in home visitations.

7. Service Staff.
   a. Full time secretary for each department—with stenographic ability; to supervise student assistants in keeping all records and files.
   b. Musician (pianist) — full time for each department.
   c. Life guard — must have valid Red Cross Examiners' Life Saving Certificate.
   d. Engineer—responsible for all heating, lighting of plant and technical care of swimming pools.
   e. Equipment Clerk—with student assistance cares for supply, equipment and towel rooms. Supervises showers and locker rooms.
   f. Custodian — responsible for general cleanliness and condition of inside facilities.
   g. Matron for girls' building.
   h. Grounds keeper — responsible for maintenance and marking of fields, courts, etc.
   i. Laundry staff—adequate in training and numbers to properly care for the necessary work.

C. Organization of Classes.
   1. Only one grade (preferably a half-grade) to be assigned to a given period.
      a. Every student to have a general physical examination by physician at beginning of year.
      b. Every student to be given a battery of tests at beginning of year to determine general motor ability.
      1. Following above examination and tests form sections as needed within each period with the boys grouped according to general motor ability, physical and mental maturity.
         a. Regular sections — would include those students capable of carrying the full program.
         b. Special activity section—would include those students requiring special attention to individual needs. (Formerly known as Corrective.) Instructor must have a broad knowledge of activities and their adaptation to individual requirements.
      2. Individual Adaptations of Program.
         a. Every student to participate in some phase of the program (which includes rest) according to prescription of school physician for his individual need.
         b. A student wishing to be excused from the daily program should be examined by the school physician or nurse and assigned to light activity or rest for the day.
      3. Readmittance to activity.
         A student who has been absent from school should be reexamined by the physician upon his return, and if advisable should be assigned to rest or light activity until his condition warrants resumption of the full program.
      4. Size of Classes.
         a. Regular—maximum of 40.
         b. Special Activity—maximum of 20.
      5. Time Allotment—One hour period of activity five days per week.

[To be completed in the next issue—April, 1941.]

HISTORY OF PROFESSIONAL PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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The earliest attempt at training physical education teachers was made by Dio Lewis when he opened the Normal Institute of Physical Education at Boston in 1861. The first course was nine weeks long and seven men and women were enrolled. The second course lasted ten weeks and eighteen men and women finished. In the nine sessions held from 1861 to 1868, two hundred and fifty persons received diplomas. While details of his courses are lacking, Lewis probably offered instruction in dumb-bell, wand and Indian club exercises, and stressed the necessity of hygienic living—he was an advocate of hygienic living throughout his life.

In 1866 the North American Turnerbund, an organization of German Turners, recognizing the need for more thorough preparation for teachers of physical education, established the Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union. This school trained leaders for the Turnvereine, which were rapidly spreading throughout the United States. The course of study consisted of the history and theory of various gymnastic systems, first aid, anatomy, and gymnastic nomenclature and practice. The Turnvereine had a marked influence on American physical education after the Civil War. It was the forerunner of the movement to include physical education in the public schools, private clubs and playgrounds. In 1907, under the name of the Normal College of the North American Gymnastic Union, it was moved to Indianapolis. It was authorized to confer degrees and titles at the end of a four year course. In September of 1932 the Normal College entered into an agreement with Indiana University whereby students completing three years at the Normal College would complete the requirements for a B. S. degree by attending Indiana University for one year. The Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union is the oldest American institution for the training of physical education teachers. (Editor's Note: The Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union has merged with Indiana University and will be known in the future as the Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union of Indiana University. This merger is to become effective on September 1, 1941.)

At Cambridge, Massachusetts, Dr. Dudley Sargent, for many years Director of the Hemenway Gymnasium at Harvard College, established the Sargent School for Physical Education in 1881. The school was first held in the "Sanatory Gymnasium" which was used to meet the needs of the young women students in the Harvard Annex, later known as Radcliffe College. The first course at the Sargent School was for one year and one student completed the work. However, the one year curriculum was soon extended to two years and by 1903 there was a three year curriculum. By 1912 a summer camp session was added to the three year requirement.

The Sargent School was a pioneer institution requiring instruction in all forms of outdoor camp activities. In 1929 it joined Boston University and was a division of the School of Education. Today, the Sargent School of Physical Education is separated from the School of Education and is an independent department of the university.

Another pioneer physical education training school was established by the Young Men's Christian Association at Springfield, Massachusetts, in 1885. The need for this school was felt because of the rapidly growing Y. M. C. A. gymnasia. By 1890 there were nearly two hundred of these gymnasia in the United States.

It was becoming increasingly difficult to find capable, well-rounded individuals who could meet the high standards required of Y. M. C. A. physical directors. The Dio Lewis system proved inadequate after 1870 and the Turners were interested primarily in turning out teachers for their own societies. As a result of the difficulty encountered in securing well-trained leaders, the International Training School of the Y. M. C. A. was founded at Springfield, Massachusetts, in 1885. Courses in theory and practice of physical education were introduced two years later. Dr. Luther H. Gulick, instructor at the Springfield school for ten years, was the first to put both theory and practice on a scientific basis. The school has grown and developed and today is still considered one of the leading teacher training institutions in physical education.

Because of the demands of the Y. M. C. A.'s in the Middle West, a training school was opened in Chicago, Illinois, in 1890. This college is still in operation and is now known as the George Williams College. Another training school was established at Nashville, Tennessee.

In 1887, through the influence of Dr. Sargent, summer courses in physical education were first given under the sponsorship of Harvard University.

Thomas D. Wood [1] of Stanford University instituted a five week summer session at Hopkins Sea Side Laboratory at Pacific Grove in 1892. It was not until 1897 that Columbia University recognized the need for active teachers to continue their education.

The Brooklyn Normal School of Gymnastics was organized in 1880 under the direction of Dr. William Gilbert Anderson. Six years later, it was transferred to New Haven in the belief that it would further its development in the environment of a great university. Dr. Arnold assumed directorship of the institution in 1900. This school was a pioneer in training for recreational leadership and was the first co-educational college in the East to give physical education courses. It is now possible to earn a master's degree by taking five years of work at this school.

In 1892 Stanford University offered a bachelor's degree in physical education. It was the first university in California and one of the first in the United States to offer such a degree. It was then designated on the program as The Department of Hygiene and Organic Training. Ten courses in hygiene and physical training were given. These were continued until 1901 when they were abandoned and only hygiene courses were offered. From 1911 to 1914, teacher training courses in physical education were offered. These courses required two and three years. In 1922 this program was discontinued, and it was not until 1927 that professional courses were again offered. In 1930 the Department of Education offered a degree of Master of Arts and also a Doctor of Philosophy degree with a major in hygiene and physical education.

Through the influence of the Turnvereine, Ohio passed the first law requiring that physical education be taught in the public schools. Slowly, other states followed, and it was not long until there was a hugh demand for teachers to handle this new teaching responsibility. It was during this period that state normal schools and state universities began to offer courses in physical education.

The first state normal school to offer physical education courses was Michigan State Normal at Ysilanti, Michigan, in 1894. Two years later the University of Washington at Seattle offered the first professional course in physical education for state universities. There was one course listed in the catalog under the Department of Physical Culture and Hygiene. In 1897-98 California, Indiana and Nebraska state universities offered teacher training courses in physical education. It was possible at the University of California to take sixteen units in Theory of Physical Culture and four units in Anatomy. This work, however, was in addition to the regular four year prescribed curriculum. The University of California has offered professional teacher training courses continuously since 1897. Nebraska was the first state university to give a four year special professional course in physical education.

The organization of professional curricula leading to titles and degrees in physical education is comparatively recent. From 1896 to 1911 the following institutions established majors in physical education. which counted toward a bachelor's degre: University of California; Teachers College, Columbia University; University of Missouri; University of Nebraska; Oberlin College; Wellesley College; and the University of Wisconsin. It was not long before a host of other schools was added to the list.

As has already been pointed out, the World War showed the glaring weakness in the physical fitness of the persons drafted into service. After the war, physical fitness and health were stressed. Approximately thirty-five states in rapid succession passed legislation requiring the teaching of physical education in the public schools. Up to this time, graduates of professional schools were entering fields other than public education.

State legislatures, after 1918, began to set up standards for certification of teachers. It was not long before four years training was the minimum requirement. Most normal schools became state teachers' colleges with degree-granting privileges, and the four year curriculum was firmly established.

The period from 1920 to 1930 witnessed the rapid development of teacher-training in physical education. Students began to take more interest in graduate study; college professors wrote books and contributed articles to magazines for use in colleges and universities. However, the depression which began in 1930 caused the expansion to stop; few new teachers were being employed; many teacher-training institutions discontinued the course in physical education; while others combined physical education with other teaching subjects. In the long run, the depression had some stabilizing effect on physical education teacher-training.

When the state laws were first put into effect, a great demand for teachers of physical education was created. It took almost a decade for teacher-training institutions to fill these needs. However, in the decade between 1930 and 1940 the supply of teachers far exceeded the demand. This resulted in the trend toward establishing higher and higher requirements both on the part of teacher-training institutions and state certification standards.

The first graduate courses in physical education were given at Springfield College in 1891. These courses were temporarily discontinued and it was not until 1907 that a graduate degree was offered.

In 1901 Teachers College of Columbia University offered the first graduate major in physical

[1] *Leland Stanford Jr. University Register for 1891-92*, Palo Alto California, Stanford University Press, Vol. I, p. 72.

education leading to a Master's Degree. Oberlin College followed soon after. New York University and Columbia University were the first to offer a degree of Doctor of Philosophy in 1924. In 1929, Stanford and Pittsburgh University were the first to offer a degree of Doctor of Education with a major in physical education. From 1924 to 1932 there were ten institutions that offered one or both of these degrees.

Private institutions which offered graduate courses by 1927 were Springfield College, 1891; Columbia University, 1901; Oberlin College, 1919; Mills College, 1919; University of Southern California, 1920; George Peabody College for Teachers, 1922; and Wellesley College, 1923.

There has been an increasing demand for educators to replace physicians as directors of departments of physical education. At the present time, those with Ph. D. degrees are more in demand than those with M. D. degrees.

In the beginning, a good "gymnasium" teacher needed to know only his drills and his apparatus—very little else. During the sixties and seventies courses were approximately two months in length. During the eighties a longer course of approximately ten months was offered. Corrective work and anthropometry was added during the nineties, and the two year courses were beginning to appear. In the first years of the twentieth century three year courses became common, but certificates for the one and two year courses were still given.

In 1910 a teacher was considered well trained if he had two years of training in a well-known school. Heads of large city systems, in many instances, had but two years of special training.[2] During this period, athletics began to need attention, and the colleges began to train men for the coaching positions. The American Physical Education Association Committee on Standards in 1920 recommended a minimum of four years preparation for a director, supervisor, college instructor or health examiner. A two year course was recommended as the minimum for an assistant in the gymnasium and playgrounds, for coaches of teams and for teachers in special lines.

About fifteen years ago health education was added to the general program. Courses in personal hygiene, orthopaedic gymnastics, preventive medicine and similar subjects were added to the curriculum. This new demand required a better background in the fundamental sciences and a more detailed knowledge of educational principles. Recreation is now demanding a place in the professional physical education training curricula. The importance of the new area cannot be overestimated, and the problem which has been created must be met by the teacher-training institutions.

Within recent years the physical education curricula have expanded so rapidly that they are now wider than most teaching areas. This expansion of the curriculum has increased the period of study and the time is near at hand when an evaluation of the courses we must include in the curriculum will become a major problem. It is certain that emphasis must be placed upon quality, and only those courses which are of real worth in training prospective teachers should be required in the curriculum.

[2] Trilling, Blanche M., "A Twenty-five Years Perspective on Physical Education Needs," *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, Vol. IV, No. 5, May, 1935, p. 4.

BASKETBALL TEST*

Junior High Schools

Name .....

Encircle the letter T for the statements you think are true and encircle the letter F for the statements you think are false.

1. T. F. Personal contact is illegal at all times.
2. T. F. A double foul is made by both teams fouling simultaneously.
3. T. F. The ball cannot be legally bounced or juggled.
4. T. F. The ball cannot be thrown from a sitting position.
5. T. F. The ball is put in play in the center circle after a goal has been made.
6. T. F. Each center player must have one hand behind him when jumping for the ball.
7. T. F. When the referee puts the ball in play in the center it must be tossed high enough so that both players have to jump for it.
8. T. F. The ball may be caught by a center jumper when a toss-up is made.
9. T. F. The ball may be bounced in from out of bounds and caught again by the same player.

* Los Angeles City School District, Division of Instruction and Curriculum—Physical Education.

10. T. F. If the goal is missed after the last of two free throws, the ball continues in play.
11. T. F. A player may cross the free throw line as soon as the ball leaves the hands of player making the throw.
12. T. F. Players may carry the ball into the court from out of bounds.
13. T. F. Captains only shall be allowed to address officials.
14. T. F. A substitute may participate in the game without the consent of referee.
15. T. F. The scorekeeper decides when ball is out of bounds.
16. T. F. Fouls may be called on any number of players at the same time.
17. T. F. A pivot bounce is legal if a player takes a step in any direction providing the other foot is kept at its point of contact.
18. T. F. Holding, tripping, and tagging are classed as technical fouls.
19. T. F. A player can guard with one or both hands in any position provided he does not touch the opponent.
20. T. F. "Own goal" is the basket for which a team is throwing.
21. T. F. A player is out of bounds when any part of his body touches the floor or any object outside of the boundary.
22. T. F. If a player with both feet "in bounds" catches a ball out of bounds the ball is considered out of bounds.
23. T. F. A foul refers to the type of rule violation for which a free throw is given.
24. T. F. Ball is not dead, when it goes out of bounds.
25. T. F. A field goal counts two points.
26. T. F. A technical foul is penalized by allowing a free throw to the opponents.
27. T. F. Running with the ball is a personal foul.
28. T. F. When the ball is tossed up between opponents, they may take a double jump.
29. T. F. If a player makes a field goal as he is fouled it does not count.
30. T. F. Stepping on or over the foul line while attempting a free throw nullifies the goal if it is made.
31. T. F. On a pivot one foot remains in place.
32. T. F. Dribbling with both hands more than once in succession is legal.
33. T. F. A held ball should be called quickly to avoid rough playing.
34. T. F. If time is called as the ball is in the air and it goes through the basket the score does not count.
35. T. F. A goal shot by mistake into the wrong basket does not count.
36. T. F. On a jump ball, both players must touch it.
37. T. F. Teams exchange goals between halves.
38. T. F. Two free throws are allowed on all personal fouls.
39. T. F. Hitting the ball out of an opponent's hands is illegal.
40. T. F. It is a personal foul to touch a ball being held by two other players.
41. T. F. Points may not be scored while the ball is dead.
42. T. F. A player may not hit the ball with his fists.
43. T. F. A player while making a free trial for goal may pass the ball to another player.
44. T. F. The ball shall go to the other side out of bounds when a player executes a double dribble.
45. T. F. The ball goes to the opponents out of bounds if a player runs with the ball.
46. T. F. If a ball is kicked intentionally by a player, the ball goes to the other side out of bounds.
47. T. F. Players are permitted to practice shooting during "time out."
48. T. F. When "held ball" is called, the ball is put in play at that point by a toss up.

BASKETBALL TESTS*

Senior High Schools

Name .....

Encircle the letter T for the statements you think are true and encircle the letter F for the statements you think are false.

1. T. F. A technical foul relates to contact.
2. T. F. If the ball is out of bounds a player has five seconds in which to return it.
3. T. F. Actual playing time may be changed by mutual agreement of captains and referee.
4. T. F. The ball is put in play at center at the beginning of each quarter.
5. T. F. When a ball is caught it must be thrown within five (5) seconds.
6. T. F. Any number of steps may be taken while the ball is in the act of being bounced or juggled.

* Los Angeles City School District, Division of Instruction and Curriculum—Physical Education.

7. T. F. The center players need not necessarily stand within the center circle to jump for the ball.
8. T. F. The center players must each face his own goal, when jumping for the ball.
9. T. F. The game ends at the expiration of playing time even though the score is a tie.
10. T. F. Players may take any positions outside the free throw lines during a free throw.
11. T. F. A substitute may participate in the game without the consent of referee.
12. T. F. A substitute before going upon the court must report to the scorer.
13. T. F. A player may leave court between quarters without the consent of referee or umpire.
14. T. F. The umpire only shall call fouls.
15. T. F. The referee only shall call "Time out."
16. T. F. The umpire may toss up a held ball.
17. T. F. Coaching from the side lines is permissible.
18. T. F. The umpire shall watch players on lanes during free throw.
19. T. F. The umpire has authority to call violations or fouls wherever committed.
20. T. F. The umpire does not need to watch the players' hands when they are jumping for ball tossed up by referee.
21. T. F. Upon the sounding of the umpire's signal play shall cease instantly.
22. T. F. If a goal has been made after the timekeeper's whistle, the goal is never counted.
23. T. F. Boxing up or guarding by two players is illegal.
24. T. F. A goal is made when the ball enters the basket from above, the impetus having been legally given by any player of either team.
25. T. F. The ball is dead when the referee's whistle is blown for a foul or violation.
26. T. F. Ball is dead when a goal is made and when a held ball is declared.
27. T. F. The ball is dead after each of the two free throws following a double foul.
28. T. F. When the ball lodges in the supports of the basket, the player is given the ball from where it was thrown.
29. T. F. A player disqualified for personal fouls may not re-enter that game.
30. T. F. Charging should never be blamed on a man dribbling the ball.
31. T. F. An opponent may reach over the boundary line and hit the ball out of a player's hands.
32. T. F. "Time out" shall be taken whenever a foul is called.
33. T. F. On a jump ball a player may catch it without tipping it.
34. T. F. Overhead dribbles are not permitted.
35. T. F. Unsportsmanlike conduct of a team's supporters can be charged against a team by the referee allowing the opponents a free throw.
36. T. F. A substitute may not communicate with other players of his team until play has been resumed.
37. T. F. A player taken out of a game twice may not again return.
38. T. F. Three personal fouls disqualifies a player for the rest of the game.
39. T. F. A player may not carry the ball into the court from out of bounds.
40. T. F. The ball is dead after the free throw following a technical foul.
41. T. F. If a player on the side of the one who is making the free throw crosses or touches the free throw lines before the ball hits the basket or backboard the ball goes to the other side out of bounds.
42. T. F. The captains of the teams shall decide which players have the most desirable positions along the free throw lines, if there is any dispute.
43. T. F. A personal foul may be called for rough play on the free throw lines.
44. T. F. A player may not interfere with the ball while it is on the edge of the basket.
45. T. F. "Time out" may be taken for injuries to players.
46. T. F. When substitutions are made, time shall not be taken out.
47. T. F. The ball may not be held more than five seconds in the backcourt.
48. T. F. In case of a technical foul, "time out" shall not be called.
49. T. F. When "time out" is requested by a captain, it shall be charged against his team.
50. T. F. When "time out" is requested by the referee for the benefit of a team, it shall not be charged as "time out."
51. T. F. If "time out" for an ordinary substitution consumes more than thirty seconds, it shall count as a "time out" against that team.